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A NEW

SYSTEM

OF

MODERN GEOGRAPHY:

OR,

A Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial Grammar;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE

SEVERAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING,

I. The Figures, Motions, and Distances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian System and the latest Observations.
II. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet, with several useful Geographical Definitions and Problems.
III. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Islands.
IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.
V. Their Climates, Air, Soil, Vegetables, Productions, Metals, Minerals, natural Curiosities, Seas, rivers, Bays, Promontories, and Lakes.
VI. The Birds and Beasts peculiar to each Country.
VII. Observations on the Changes that have been any where observed upon the Face of Nature since the most early Periods of History.
VIII. The History and Origin of Nations; their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength.
IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People.
X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curiosities.
XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances of principal Places from Philadelphia.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A Geographical Index,

WITH THE NAMES AND PLACES ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.

II. A Table of the Coins of all Nations,

AND THEIR VALUE IN DOLLARS AND CENTS.

III. A Chronological Table of remarkable Events,

FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

IV. The late Diſcoveries of Herſchell, and other Aſtronomers.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PARTS CORRECTED BY DR. RITTENHOUSE.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOLUME I.

THE FIRST AMERICAN EDITION,
CORRECTED, IMPROVED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED.

PHILADELPHIA:
PRINTED BY MATHEW CAREY.
APRIL. 27. M.DCC.XCV.

THE first edition of this work was printed at London, about twenty-six years ago. Two other performances, on the same plan, had successively enjoyed a very extensive circulation. One of these was written by Mr. Gordon, and, considering the period in which it appeared, possessed great merit. His book was succeeded by that of Salmon, who is never mentioned with literary men, though his name better deserves the respect and gratitude of posterity, than one-half of those which compose the catalogue of authors. He compiled; in the course of a long and laborious life, as many volumes as would form a small library; and, as Smollet informs us, he was, at the age of four-score, writing in a garret, at a guinea per sheet. He was master of a pleasing and elegant stile, of a considerable share of information, and above all, of that inestimable art of obtaining and securing the attention of the reader, without ever becoming tiresome. Of his geographical grammar, there was at least a fourteenth edition; and, undoubtedly, the impressions were considerably more numerous; because among the fourteen, those published in Ireland, and which have frequently supplied the American market, are not comprehended. This performance was greatly superior to that of Mr. Gordon; and, for many years, entirely engrossed the attention of the world. On the appearance of Guthrie's geographical grammar, that of Salmon, though in many points a much better book, sunk, from unbounded popularity, into instant oblivion. There are few examples, in the annals of literature, of so rapid a transition from celebrity to obscurity; but the circumstance is easilly explained by the situation of the commerce of books in England. No country in the world ever laboured under a more complete aristocracy, than that which is exerted by the principal booksellers of London. When they have determined to force the sale of a publication, they can employ a variety of artifices which make its success almost infallible.

An American edition of this work had long been wanted; and the publisher was of opinion, that he could not give a more useful or acceptable present to the citizens of the united states. But upon close examination, he very soon discovered, that the grammar, which had been so long, and so loudly celebrated, united, in many passages, almost every fault, that can disgrace a literary composition. The book was exactly calculated to flatter the grossest prejudices of the English nation, at the expense of every other part of the human species. The scurrility bestowed upon other nations, the Portuguese, and the Dutch, for example, was, at once, the most pitiful, ungenerous, and unjust. The panegyrics lavished upon England, a country, which certainly affords

an ample basis for rational praise, were so fulsome, and even stupid, that it seemed impossible for any Englishman of liberal sentiments, to peruse them without disgust. This single article filled no less tha two hundred and five pages of the last quarto edition of 1792; that is to say, *one fifth part of the whole work.* Yet France, a country thrice as populous, and more than twice as large, was allowed but forty-two pages; and of these, several were very uninteresting. As to Scotland, we have made large and essential additions to its history, which had been strangely mutilated by our predecessor. An Irish edition of this work was published at Dublin, in 1789, in quarto, with voluminous additions, calculated for the local sale of that island. In the English editions, the account of that country had been drawn up with very little attention. Of these two rival publications, the one said by far too little, and the other said too much, though not perhaps for an Irish, yet certainly for an American reader. A middle course has been chosen. We have likewise added about sixteen pages to the historical part of the article, pages, which the London editor would not, and the Irish editor durst not, have written. Enjoying the inestimable advantage of living in a free country, where truth may be announced without dread or hesitation, we have spoken of nations, of statesmen, and of kings, with a frankness, to which, even in the best days of the British press, its authors hardly could aspire. As it is improper to advance an accusation, without, at the same time, producing proofs to support it, we shall here insert a few specimens of those inaccuracies, that are to be met with, in almost every page of the fifth and latest quarto edition of this work, printed, as we have observed, at London, in 1792.

Under the article of Italy, the English editor has published a table of the square miles of the territories of each state, and of some of the islands in the Mediterranean, adjacent to Italy. In summing them up, he has made a mistake, by giving as the total amount, seventy-five thousand six hundred and seventy-two; an error which makes a difference of *twenty-two thousand six hundred and sixteen miles.*

In the same page, he says that "the form of Italy renders it very "difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions." In the next paragraph, we are told, that "nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy." When once we have determined the *boundaries* of any given space, we certainly want no farther authority, for enabling us to ascertain its *extent* and *dimensions.*

The following passage exhibits what is commonly termed a bull. "The city *standing* upon the ruins of ancient Rome, *lies* much higher." p. 636.

"Cagliari *is an university, an archbishopric*, and the seat of the vice-"roy, containing about fifteen thousand inhabitants." p. 641. As to the first of these, he might, with equal propriety, have said, that Cagliari is a church, a stable, or a saw mill.

held ſome provinces adjacent to Conſtantinople; but the expreſſion in the text is very inaccurate.

"This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like "the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the ſurface, with- "out heating the water; and if left unextinguiſhed, *it communicates itſelf, by ſubter-* "*raneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and* "*about thirty five years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years*, BECAUSE "*(he means* before) *they could be entirely extinguiſhed.*" P. 538.

"The White Lake, in the ſame country, is ſaid *to dye thoſe who waſh in it, of a* "*ſwarthy complexion.*" P. 539.

"There is a ſpecies of wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, *as well* "*as natives*, are fond of." P. 539. As the Ukarine is not once mentioned in any other part of this paragraph, it is not very eaſy to diſcover the exact meaning of the ſentence, if it has any. If the writer intends to refer to the Poliſh *Ukraine*, which he does not hint, the diſtinction between the nobles and the natives is unintelligible; ſince the former are certainly, *as well as their vaſſals*, natives of the Ukraine.

In page 186, when a Scots army ſurrendered to a ſmall party of Engliſh troops, at Solway Frith, in 1542, Guthrie ſays, that the Engliſh cavalry "*ſlew great num-* *bers.*" On the authority of dr. Robertſon, it has been ſaid in the preſent edition, that the Scots ſurrendered, *without ſtriking a blow.* In reality, no lives whatever were loſt on this occaſion.

In p. 610, Guthrie, in ſpeaking of the conſpiracy againſt the life of the late king of Portugal, ſays, that the families of Aveira and Tavora, who were deſtroyed by torture, "were condemned without any proper evidence, and their INNOCENCE *has* "*been ſince publicly and authentically declared.*" Be it ſo. But at the bottom of the ſame page, he tells us, that "whether the diſcontented Jeſuits were *really concerned* "with the unfortunate noblemen, who ſuffered on that account, or not, *is difficult to* "*determine!*" He himſelf, as we have juſt ſeen, had determined, that the noblemen themſelves were *innocent*, and that their *innocence* had been *publicly* and *authentically* declared. It was therefore impoſſible, that the Jeſuits, or any body elſe, could have been *concerned with them*, in that black tranſaction.

In p. 657, he ſays, that Candia, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its "hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, *the ſeat of legiſlature to all* "*Greece*, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions." He might as well have ſaid, that Philadelphia was *the ſeat of legiſlature to all Europe.* The laws of Crete were celebrated; but ſo were thoſe of Athens, and of Sparta. Their wiſdom in theory has been much admired by a croud of ſucceſſive hiſtorians. Yet polybius, in one of his fragments, that ſeems to have paſſed unobſerved, remarks, that the Cretans were in a ſtate of perpetual diſcord among themſelves. The reſt of the above ſentence contains nothing but verbiage.

In p. 538, we are informed, that "the air of Poland is such as may be expected "from so extensive but *level* a climate!" What kind of air may be expected from a *perpendicular* climate?

"The forests of Warsovia contain plenty of *Uri* or buffaloes." p. 539. He might have added, that they likewise contain plenty of *equi* or horses, and of *corvi* or crows.

In p. 559, we have the following extraordinary passage. "Lewis the fourteenth, "*through a masterly train of politics* (FOR, in his wars to support his grandson, as we "have already observed, *he was almost ruined*,) accomplished his favourite project of "transferring the kingdom of Spain, to his own family." It is hard to say, whether the elegance of this sentence, or its shrewdness, is most remarkable. Passing over both we shall only observe, that, six years after the peace of Utrecht, the government of France declared war against Philip the fifth, of Spain, *that very grandson*, to secure whose succession, Lewis, in the plenitude of his *masterly* politics, had almost *ruined himself*. Such is the *stability* of the boasted balance of power! and such the maturity of diplomatic wisdom!

"A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till "about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of Spain, *Portugal excepted*, (he "might have also said, *France or Japan excepted*) were united by the marriage of "Ferdinand king of Arragon, and Isabella the heiress, and afterwards queen of "Castile, who took Granada, and *expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who "would not be converts to the christian faith, to the number of one hundred and seventy "thousand families.*"

"The expulsion of the Moors, and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of "artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only "*added to that calamity*, but rendered the remaining Spaniards *most deplorably indo-"lent.* To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the in-"quisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the re-"turn of the Moors and Jews." p. 597. The expulsion of the Moors and Jews did not happen till the year one thousand *six hundred and nine.* So that mr. Guthrie might as well have placed the conquest of Canada, by general Wolfe, in *the reign of James the first.*

In p. 585, he says, "that the emperor Charles the fifth began a new palace, (at Granada) in fifteen hundred and *sixty-eight.*" Within a few pages we are informed that Charles himself resigned his crown in the year fifteen hundred and fifty-six, and died *two years afterwards*; so that the emperor must have founded this palace ten years after he was in his grave. In any other book, the mistake of a single figure might candidly have been ascribed to the corrector of the press. But, when we are assured that Ferdinand and Isabella, a century after they were buried, *expelled an hundred and seventy thousand families of Moors and Jews, out of Spain*, it appears to be the most natural circumstance in the world, that an emperor might

build a palace *ten years after his death!* We mention this error as a ſpecimen of hundreds of the ſame kind, which had eſcaped in all the former editions of this book.

When a ſtory flatly contradicts the very firſt principles of common ſenſe and poſſibility, it is of no conſequence upon what authority it is related. The tranſcriber and the inventor ſtand exactly on a level. Whether the editors of this book have themſelves fabricated the following ſtupendous fiction, or whether they have copied it, from ſome former fabuliſt, cannot be worth an inquiry. When deſcribing the ſiege of Gibraltar, the writer proceeds thus: "Amidſt this dreadful "ſcene, there were two boys who proved of ſingular uſe to the garriſon, *the acuteneſs of their ſight being ſuch that they could* (let future ages hear it, and admire!) "*trace the ſhot from the mouth of the cannon, and thus give warning to the ſoldiers of their danger.*" p. 600. What is this better than Livy cutting a whetſtone with a razor, and telling us of two moons that were ſeen in the ſky at the ſame time; or, than John Struys aſcending Mount Ararat, and cutting a crucifix from the ribs of Noah's ark!

"Our next extract is nonſenſe of a different kind. "The women have a watch-"ful eye over their daughters, and in the diſtrict of Samagotia particularly, make "them *wear little bells before and behind*, to give notice where they are, and what they "are doing." p. 543. On this *ingenious* piece of intelligence, a correſpondent makes this juſt obſervation: "The paragraph is ſo *ſilly*, and mentions what is ſo *highly improbable*, that I think it would be proper *to omit it altogether*."

In page 561, we meet with "the *latitude* of Mont Blanc!" It appears from the context, that he means the altitude. After telling us in the ſame page, that this mountain is fifteen thouſand *ſix hundred and ſixty-two* feet in height, he concludes with the following profound obſervations. "Some philoſophers, upon "conſidering the great ſuperiority of the eaſtern rivers over the European, both in "depth and breadth, have drawn a preſumptive argument that the Aſiatic moun-"tains are much more lofty than thoſe of Europe. But conjectures *are now baniſh-"ed from natural philoſophy;* (NO!) and until it ſhall be proved from undoubted "calculations, that the higheſt part of the Caucaſus riſes more than fifteen thou-"ſand feet above the level of the ſea, Mont Blanc may be fairly conſidered *as "more elevated;*" which, no doubt, is a very *ſurpriſing* diſcovery.

The lakes of Turkey, in Europe, "are not extremely remarkable, nor are they "mentioned with any great *applauſe*, either by ancients or moderns." p. 650.

"Leopold, his ſecond ſon, king of Hungary, *is now* grand duke, and Tuſcany "has aſſumed a new face." p. 655.

In the advertiſement to this edition, which was publiſhed, as we have already noticed, in 1792, we are informed that "the hiſtorical narrative, throughout, has "been brought down *to the preſent time*, and attention has been paid to the impor-"tant occurrences, which, in this eventful period, have ariſen upon the continent "of Europe."

Leopold was elected emperor on the 9th of October, seventeen hundred *and ninety*, and ought to have been mentioned as such in the preceeding passage of a book published in 1792. He died on the first of March, 1792. And yet of his death, or even the date of his coronation, as king and emperor, there is not the least notice in this edition, but merely that he succeeded Joseph.

"He would behold a vast chain of mountains, intersected by numerous vallies, "and *composed of many parallel chains.*" p. 560. A chain composed of *parallel chains*, is at least a novelty.

The following paragraph deserves particular attention on a more important account, than that for which it is here quoted.

"In the course of the late war, from 1776, to 1782, forty-six millions five hun-"dred and fifty thousand pounds *was* added to the three per cents; and twenty-"six millions, seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds to the four per cents, "making together a capital of seventy-three millions, *four* hundred thousand "pounds, for which the money advanced was only *forty-eight millions.*" p. 273. The two sums nominally borrowed, and here added together, make it only seventy-three millions three hundred thousand pounds. In several former editions the error in summing up amounted to several millions; and even yet, as it seems, they have not been able to add it *exactly.*

"An Englishman of education and reading, is the most accomplished gentle-"man in the world." p. 201. This is one of those silly passages that reflect ridicule on the writer. What is an accomplished *English* gentleman better than one of the same character in France, Ireland, America, or any where else?

The taxes raised on the people of Britain annually, amount, exclusive of the charge of collecting, "to upwards of *fourteen* millions sterling." p. 275. Before this edition of 1792 was printed, they extended to *sixteen* millions sterling.

"The *irresistible* spirit and weight of the English cavalry, render them supe-"rior to all others in war." p. 197. And again: "No country in Europe equals "England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants." p. 194. Such adulation has, no doubt, promoted the sale of the book, in which the author is every where solicitous to represent the English nation, as the most perfect of the human species, and the country itself as a terrestrial paradise. If the cavalry of England are *irresistible*, how then does it happen that they are so frequently beaten? "In the beauty of its prospects," England is far exceeded by Switzerland, and is, at least, equalled by the greater part of Europe. As to the superior opulence of its inhabitants, it is well known that the Dutch are, by far, the richest nation in that part of the world. The government of Switzerland has very large sums lent at interest; while nobody can tell, *within ten or twenty millions sterling*, how far the government of England is in debt. England swarms with beggars. In Holland and Switzerland they are almost entirely unknown.

" The code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received " by all the nations in Europe, as the ground of their marine conſtitutions, was con- " feſſedly compiled by our king Richard the firſt." p. 278. Richard was an illiterate barbarian, and, as ſuch, utterly incapable of writing on laws, or on any other ſubject, that deſerved the notice of mankind. We have ſtruck out *ſome hundreds of paſſages* of this ſort. Indeed, the article of England is ſtill diſproportionably large. Yet, it has been reduced, from two hundred and five pages, to *one hundred and thirty;* and beſides, we have found room for numerous and important additions.

" Such regulations are, however, made at preſent," (ſeventeen hundred and *ninety*) " and actually have taken place." p. 274. In the advertiſement already quoted, we have been told, that the hiſtorical narrative was brought down to *the preſent time*, which appears not to be the caſe. It is hardly neceſſary to ſay, that the account of the American war, under the article of England, abounds with miſrepreſentations, and likewiſe with omiſſions, which, by concealing, what ought, in juſtice, to be told, amount to the ſame effect.

When deſcribing the ravages committed by the locuſts in Spain, the writer adds, " the deſcription of this gloomy ſcene, at leaſt of one ſimilar to it, which *a prophet* has " given us, is ſcarcely to be equalled for beauty and poetic fire. He calls upon the " people to lament, becauſe a nation, ſtrong and without number, whoſe teeth are the " teeth of lions, had ſuddenly invaded them. Then, TURNING TO THE HERALDS, " *blow ye the trumpet*, &c. which will richly compenſate the reader for the trouble of " conſulting it. Joel xi. 1. 11." p. 577. Of this elegant and *perſpicuous* paſſage, we have only to obſerve, that it has been reprinted, exactly *as it ſtands in the original.*

The United States occupy thirty-nine pages of the London edition; that is, ſomething leſs than *one-fifth part* of the number of pages aſſigned to England. The writer pretends to quote the American geography of mr. Morſe, as to Vermont and Kentucky, and, with great generoſity, has aſſigned to each of theſe two ſtates, *one hundred and fifty thouſand* inhabitants. If he had conſulted the cenſus printed by order of congreſs, and dated the twenty-fourth of October, ſeventeen hundred and *ninety-one*, he would have ſeen that both Vermont and Kentucky, together, contained, at that time, but *an hundred and fifty-nine thouſand two hundred and ſixteen* people. To Georgia, he allows but *forty thouſand.* By the cenſus, they were *eighty-two thouſand five hundred and forty-eight.* North-Carolina he eſtimates *two hundred and ſeventy thouſand;* though the cenſus rates them at *three hundred and ninety three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-one.* South-Carolina contains, by the cenſus, two hundred and forty-nine thouſand and ſeventy-three inhabitants; but they are reduced, by the Engliſh editor of this grammar, to *one hundred and eighty thouſand.* It is needleſs to enlarge farther on this ſubject; ſince the taſk is both diſagreeable and invidious. We ſhall only juſt obſerve, that in p. 909, " Radnor, and Oxford," are mentioned as " *very conſiderable towns*" in Pennſylvania; and that this writer has beſtowed upon Philadelphia, " CANALS from the two rivers, " which contribute not only to the beauty, but the wholeſomeneſs of the city."

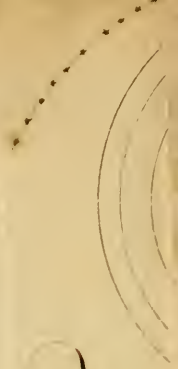
It would have been more for the honour of the work, had the account of the United States been omitted altogether. It this edition, a new account will be given from the beſt authorities which can be obtained.

We have thought it requiſite to enter into this explanation, with reſpect to the European editions of this performance. The alterations and additions in the preſent one, are ſo numerous, that it better deſerves the title of an original work, than ſome mutilated tranſcripts of Guthrie, which, under a different name, have been introduced to the world. The article of Sweden is entirely written over again; of Ireland, and Scotland, we have already taken notice. In Ruſſia, Holland, the Auſtrian Netherlands, Germany, and Pruſſia, we have made large additions. The literary articles of Spain and Italy, are much more complete than formerly; and we have, throughout, almoſt in every page, made a variety of corrections, which, though, ſeparately taken, they are minute, yet all together, form a very conſiderable improvement. The work of Guthrie has the appearance of being written at various times, and by different hands; for paſſages are ſometimes evidently thruſt in, which are unconnected with the context. In point of common grammar, we have made corrections paſt number, and we hope that the time and unexpected labour beſtowed in improving the work, will be admitted as an apology for ſome delay in the periods of publication.

The maps added to this edition are twenty-one, among which are thoſe of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, Rhode-Iſland, Vermont, New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North-Carolina, the Tenneſſee government, South-Carolina, and Georgia. Theſe maps have never been given in any former ſyſtem of geography, and, it is hoped, would alone be ſufficient to ſecure this work a preference to any other edition of Guthrie.

It only remains to obſerve—and the obſervation is made with due gratitude—that the encouragement with which this work has been favoured, has exceeded the publiſher's moſt ſanguine expectations. The ſubſcriptions have rapidly increaſed, and it is expected that the whole number of copies printed off, will be ſubſcribed for, long before the impreſſion can be finiſhed.

Philadelphia, February 5, 1794.



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* This planet has the name of its discoverer, Herschell, given to it by the French, Germans, Americans, &c. In England, it is called the Georgium Sidus.

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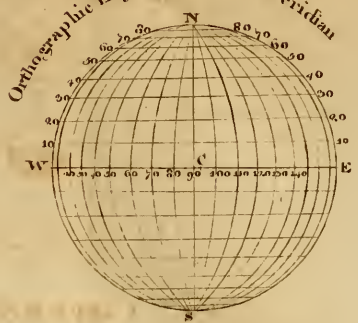

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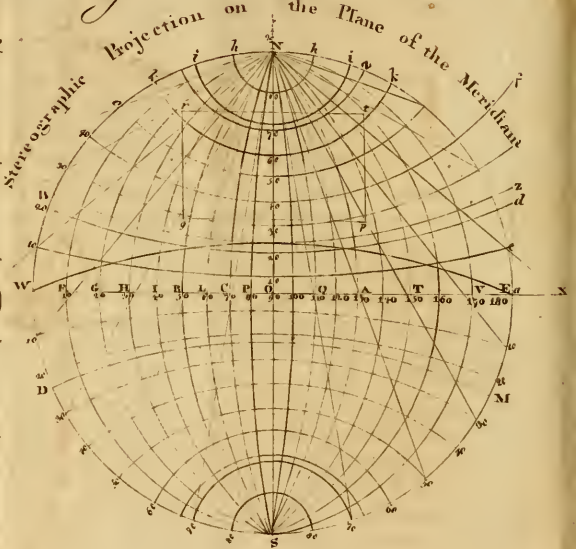

J. T. Scott fculp.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

Of the PLANETS, *the* COMETS, *the* FIXED STARS, *and the different* SYSTEMS *of the* WORLD.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. The ſcience which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called ASTRONOMY. Hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is the ſun, the fountain of light and heat to the planets that move round it; and which, together with the ſun, compoſe what is called the ſolar ſyſtem. The path in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their orbit; and it is now proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſeven planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their proximity to the centre, or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the planet Herſchell*. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth, (being nearer the ſun), are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets. The four laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form an idea of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, for inſtance, the earth moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt perform it. We ſhall only, therefore, particularly conſider the motion of the earth, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall deliver, with ſuch explanations as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

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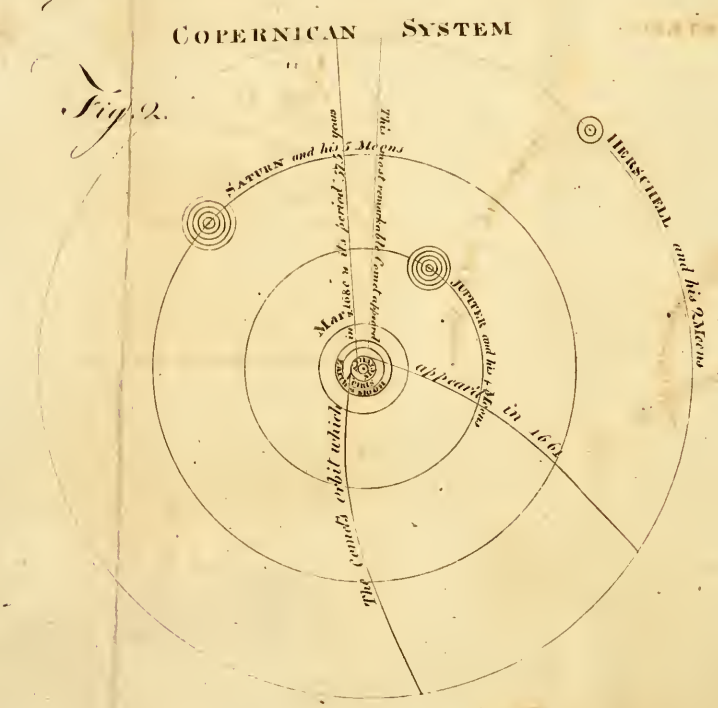
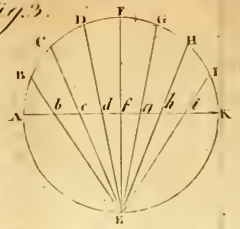
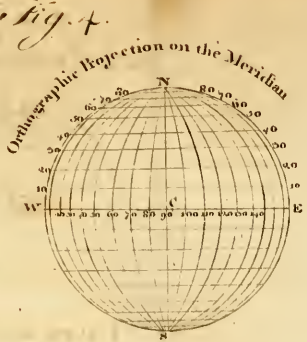
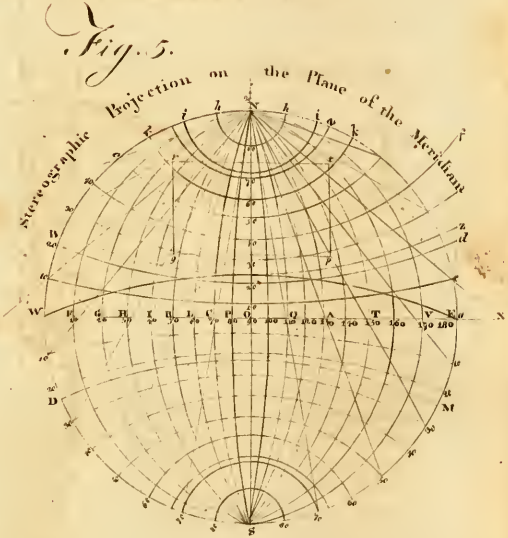
Fig. 1.









J. T. Scott sculp.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

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out apparently altering its direction more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball.

The roundneſs of the earth being eſtabliſhed, a way was naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion; for, while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not conceive what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed, by conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to judge pretty nearly of the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every one that knows the firſt elements of mathematics, can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception; whereas, all the appearances in nature may be better explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the twenty-four hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green, not by ſliding along, like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth, in the ſpace of twenty-four hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive, that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time, in which they, with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us to form a notion of its annual motion round the ſun; for, as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in a year. Now, as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] Thus much being premiſed, with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflexion may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that, beſides the ſeven planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are fourteen other bodies, which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe, our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has ſeven, (two of theſe having been lately diſcovered by dr. Herſchell) and Herſchell has two, as that excellent aſtronomer has ſhown. Theſe are called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was firſt attended to: and ſometimes they are called *ſecondary* planets, or ſatellites, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Herſchell, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are two obſervations more, neceſſary for underſtanding the following table. They are theſe. We have already ſaid, that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution;

which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in the length of days and nights. This, therefore, is not the caſe. The axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive, by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table. It now remains, to conſider what is meant by the *mean diſtances* of the planets from the ſun. In order to underſtand this, we muſt learn, that the path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marken out, would not be quite round or circular, but in ſhape of a figure called an ellipſes, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun; and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly between its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in Engliſh miles.	Mean diſtances from the ſun*.	Annual periods round the ſun.	Diurnal rotation of its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			y. d. h.	l. h. m.			
Sun	809,000			25 6 0		3,818	8 0
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unknown.	unknown.
Venus	7,906	68,891,406	0 224 17	24 8 †0	80,295	† 43	75 0
Earth	7,979	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23 29
Moon	2,180	ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 50	29,083	25,920	0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29 167 6	unknown	22,101	unknown.	unknown.

The planet Herſchell, (or, as it is termed in England, the Georgium Sidus), having greatly excited the attention of the learned world, it would be unpardonable, in a work of this nature, to omit giving the reader a brief account of it; which we ſhall draw from the beſt authority. It was diſcovered by dr. William Herſchell, in the year 1781; for which he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompence of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. The editor of the laſt edition of Chambers's dictionary (the rev. dr. Rees) having been favoured with an account of this planet from the ingenious diſcoverer, we give an extract from that work. "From many calculations of our beſt aſtronomers, and mathematicians, ſays dr. Herſchell, I have collected the following particulars, as moſt to be depended upon.

Place of the node	—	—	—	2 11 49	30
Inclination of the orbit	—	—		43	35
Place of the perihelion	—	—	—	172 13	17
Time of the perihelion paſſage	—	—		Sept. 7, 1799	
Eccentricity of the orbit	.82024				
Half the greater axis	19.07904				
Revolution —	83.3364	ſidereal years.			

"From my own obſervations on this planet's apparent diameter which I have

* As determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus, in 1761. † Uncertain.

found cannot well be leſs than 4, nor indeed much greater, I infer that its real diameter is, to that of the earth, as 4.454 to 1; and hence it appears to be of very conſiderable bulk, and, except Saturn and Jupiter, by far the largeſt of the planets. Its light is of a bluiſh-white colour, and its brilliancy between that of the moon, and that of Venus. With a teleſcope which magnifies about three hundred times, it appears to have a very well defined viſible diſk; but with inſtruments of a ſmall power, it can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from a fixed ſtar of between the ſixth and ſeventh magnitude. In a very fine clear night, when the moon is abſent, it may alſo be ſeen by the naked eye."

On the 11th of January, 1787, dr. Herſchell diſcovered two ſatellites belonging to this planet.

THE COMETS.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets from the table in the foregoing page, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to the comets, which, as they revolve round our ſun, are a part of the ſolar ſyſtem. Theſe, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſometimes ſurpriſe us with the ſingular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to record their phenomena accurately till of late. Hence, this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of a much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated, in every period, to ſuch a degree, as would vitrify any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be two thouſand times hotter then red hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than twenty thouſand years; and it is computed to be only five hundred and ſeventy-five. There are various comets belonging to our ſyſtem, paſſing in all directions. About ſixty have been already obſerved, which move through the etherial regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering any ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions; which proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of ſeventy-five, one hundred and twenty-nine, and five hundred and ſeventy-five years. That which appeared in 1680, is the moſt remarkable. Its greateſt diſtance is about eleven thouſand two hundred millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about four hundred and ninety thouſand miles; within leſs than one-third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit, which is neareſt to the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of eight hundred and eighty thouſand miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears one hundred degrees in breadth, conſequently forty thouſand times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination, the vaſt diſtance between our ſun, and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of ſir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for

it may be obſerved, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not very fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M'Laurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

THE FIXED STARS] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon with the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies, called the *fixed ſtars*; which, being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye, from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar; and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling*. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other, though the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars, which are neareſt to us, ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable, which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner; yet, when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time, by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as amazing; becauſe, the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about three thouſand ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of that inſtrument. Dr. Herſchell, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, we ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande. "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new teleſcope, the univerſe increaſed under his eye; forty-four thouſand ſtars, ſeen in the ſpace of a few degrees, ſeem to indicate that there are ſeventy-five millions in the heavens." But, what are all theſe, when compared to thoſe that

*. That this is not the cauſe of the twinkling of the ſtars, has been obſerved before, but the error has, nevertheleſs, been continued. Tho' the fixed ſtars are at ſuch immenſe diſtances from us, that the rays of light coming to us from different points of the ſame ſtar, may be conſidered as parallel to each other, and conſequently the ſtar muſt appear as a point; yet, when we conſider the great breadth of the pupil of the eye, eſpecially in the night, being from a fifth to a quarter of an inch, it is evident that particles floating in the air, ſufficient to deprive us of the ſight of a ſtar, muſt at leaſt be as big as common peas. For ſuch a particle muſt not only have its apparent diameter equal to that of the ſtar, but its real diameter, at whatever diſtance, muſt be equal to the diameter of the pupil of the eye; otherwiſe it cannot intercept the pencil of rays which would enter the eye, and there paint the image of the ſtar. The true cauſe of this appearance ſeems to be the refracting power of the atmoſphere, by which the rays of light, which were equally diffuſed before, are thrown into waves, if I may ſo call them, of unequal denſities, and the pencils which enter the eye, become, alternately, more or leſs denſe, and, conſequently, the ſtar will appear, by turns, more and leſs brilliant; whilſt the ſame thing cannot take place with the planets, by reaſon of the variety of angles under which the rays of light, from their ſurfaces, enter our atmoſphere; nor with the fixed ſtars at great altitudes, because their light is then but very little refracted. D. R.

fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of æther. Indeed, the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers, as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination: for, who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits where the Creator ſtayed "his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes!"

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth and each other, is, of all conſiderations, the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For, notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt one hundred and ſixty-two millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that, the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us, when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or one hundred and ſixty-two millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſtantly the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable, that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as the earth and other planets revolve round our ſun. Now, the dog-ſtar appears twenty-ſeven thouſand times leſs than the ſun; and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us, than we do in making an European voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in fifty thouſand years, which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of four hundred and eighty miles in an hour, would not reach us in ſeven hundred thouſand years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us; for the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render theſe objects viſible by reflexion. The ſtars, therefore, ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is not probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, ſhould have created ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and placed them at ſuch diſtances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created merely to impart a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of Aſtronomy*, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead, then, of one ſun and one world only in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that, if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to him, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed, by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore; the ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would

* Especially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good telescope; and, therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Herſchell, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of ten thouſand eight hundred and thirty millions of miles, in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions many thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Herſchell; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by the force of the ſun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded, that all the reſt are by equal wiſdom provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants; for, although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from each other, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes as the ſun; each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt, what an amazing conception—if human imagination can conceive it—does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands of thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion; yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity!

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The firſt people who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the ſhepherds in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly for amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in England do the ſame; for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent, with a very little aid from the fancy. But the conſtellations, in general, have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients, by whom there were reckoned twenty-one northern, and twelve ſouthern: but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to thirty-ſix, and of the ſouthern to thirty-two. Beſides theſe, there are the twelve ſigns or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word, ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe twelve repreſents ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time, we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not immoveable. We find, accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about five hundred and eighty years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had calculated eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and moon; the nature of which may be eaſily under-

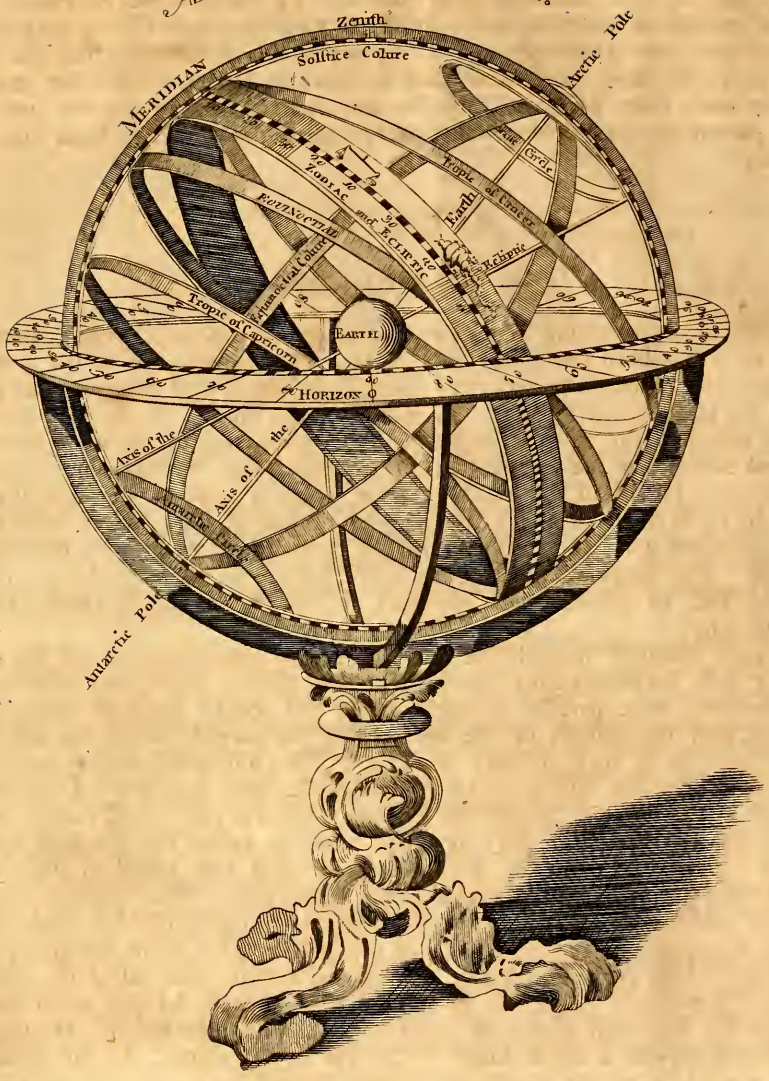
ſtood, from what we have already obſerved. Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about fifty years after Thales, and was equally well acquainted with the motions of the celeſtial bodies. This led him to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe ever had been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. This ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to common prejudices, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed. The philoſophers of antiquity deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, endeavoured to adapt one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed one hundred and thirty-eight years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſtly, the cœlum empyreum, or heaven of heavens. All theſe orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours; beſides moving in certain ſtated or periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he ſuppoſed a number of circles, called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the Peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had ſo long been in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and mankind could not fully comprehend this ſublime ſyſtem. This occaſioned Copernicus to have many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1576, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of many ages, the dawn of learning and taſte appeared in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which afforded new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The ignorant and inveterate prejudices of the times had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud. Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem as a damnable hereſy. But the illumination, which the revival of learning produced, made mankind perceive, that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a nobler purpoſe, to make us virtuous and humane; that inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which, in ſpeaking of natural things, ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we ſhould employ our faculties in a manner highly agreeably to God, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcove-

ARMILLARY SPHERE.



ries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *gravity*, or *attraction*, and is the ſame by which a body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

SECT. II.

Of the doctrine of the Sphere.

HAVING, in the foregoing ſection, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the globe, or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next ſection. In diſcuſſing this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the celeſtial bodies as performing their revolutions round it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is, beſides, attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familar; and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to*.

The ancients obſerved that all the ſtars turned, in appearance, round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles, which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth being the largeſt, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved that there were two points in the heavens which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to run round them. In order to imitate their motions they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points, called *poles*. They farther obſerved that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was alſo called the *Equinoctial Line*, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June, to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned towards that from whence it ſet out, from the 22d of December, to the 21ſt of June; they fixed *theſe points*, which they called *Solſtices*, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them; and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers, obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree, or the 360th part of a great circle in the heavens,

* In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere.

every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone*, called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely at an angle of 23 degrees 28 minutes, the sun's greatest inclination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles, called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the Zodiac. The ancients also observed that when the sun was in any point of his course, the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle representing the bounds between the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

The doctrine of the globe naturally follows that of the sphere.

BY the doctrine of the globe, is meant the representation of the different places and countries of the earth, upon an artificial globe. The manner in which geographers have represented the situation of one place with regard to another, or to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, according as they lay on one side of the equator or another. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the doctrine of the globe is founded, may proceed to consider this doctrine itself, or, in other words, the description of our earth, as represented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in speaking of the earth, with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet, it has been discovered that this is not its true figure; and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This occasioned a great dispute between the philosophers of the last age; among whom, sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate sphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator; so that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a *diameter*, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing at right angles to the former. The French philosopher asserted the contrary. But the dispute was terminated, in 1736, by the French king, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and, from their report, the opinion of sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader comprehends what we observed with regard to the earth's motion; for, if we fix a ball of clay on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will project towards the middle, and flatten

towards the poles. This is exactly the case with regard to our earth; only, that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe, without any sensible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the table which we have exhibited, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the best observations; so that its circumference is twenty-five thousand and thirty-eight English miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of measuring, to be divided into three hundred and sixty parts or degrees, each degree containing sixty geographical miles, or sixty-nine English miles and an half. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the poles of the earth; one in the north, and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens, called the north and south poles. The knowledge of these poles, is of great use to the geographer, in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and *vice versa*.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] These are commonly divided into the *greater* and *lesser*. A great circle is that, whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A lesser circle is that, which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are *six* in number, the lesser *four*.

EQUATOR.] The first *great circle* we shall speak of, is the *Equator*, of which we have already made mention. It is sometimes called the *Equinoctial*; the reason of which we have explained: and, by navigators, it is also called the *Line*, because, according to the rude notions they formerly entertained, they believed it to be a great line drawn upon the sea from east to west, dividing the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It divides the globe into the northern and southern hemispheres, and is itself divided into three hundred and sixty degrees; the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.] *This great circle* is represented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers properly distinguish the horizon into the *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us *apparently* touching the earth or sea. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, they are said to rise, and to set when they go beneath the western. Each place has its own *sensible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it. Of these, the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac, viz. thirty to each sign. The next has the names of these signs, with the days of the month, by the old and new style. A third circle represents the thirty-two points of the mariner's compass.

MERIDIAN.] *This circle* is represented by the *brass ring*, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator

at right angles; so that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western hemispheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, because, when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then mid-day, and the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now, as the sun is never in its meridian altitude at two places east or west of one another at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

Zodiac.] The Zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs above mentioned are represented. In the middle of this circle is supposed the *Ecliptic*, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve signs are,

1. Aries ♈	— —	March	7. Libra ♎ — — September
2. Taurus ♉	— —	April	8. Scorpio ♏ — — October
3. Gemini ♊	— —	May	9. Sagittarius ♐ — — November
4. Cancer ♋	— —	June	10. Capricorn ♑ — — December
5. Leo ♌	— —	July	11. Aquarius ♒ — — January
6. Virgo ♍	— —	August	12. Pisces ♓ — — February

Colures.] If you imagine *two great circles* passing both through the poles of the world, one of them through the equinoctial points, Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points, Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures, the one the equinoctial, the other the solstitial Colure. These divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are named from the points through which these pass, viz. the four cardinal points; and are the first points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn: and these are all the *great circles*.

Tropics.] Suppose two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes distance from it, measured on the brazen meridian, one towards the north, the other towards the south. These are called Tropics, because the sun appears, when in them, to recede from his former course. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, because they pass through these points.

Polar circles.] Two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the like distance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points. These are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear; the *southern*, the *Antarctic*, because opposite to the former. These are the *four lesser circles*. Besides these circles now described, which are always drawn on the globe, there are several others, which are only supposed to be drawn on it. They will be explained as it becomes necessary, lest the reader should be fatigued with too many definitions at the same time, without seeing the purpose for which they serve. The design of these circles is to exhibit the respective situations of places on the earth, and we shall proceed to consider more particularly how they conduce to this end. It was found more easy to distinguish places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their distances from any one point. For as the equator divided the earth into two parts, the northern and southern hemispheres, it was readily seen that all places on the globe might be distinguished, according as they lay on the north or south side of the equator.

Zones.] After the four lesser circles came to be known, the earth, by means of them, was divided into five portions, and the places on its surface were distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions, which are called Zones. This name is derived from the Greek word *Zone*, which signifies a girdle; as the Zones stretch quite round the globe in that form.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and was called

by the ancients *torrid*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it could contain nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This idea has long ſince been refuted. The long nights, heavy dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, make the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places, the huſbandman has two harveſts in a year. All kinds of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more metals, precious ſtones and pearls, than all the reſt of the globe. This zone comprehends the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, Philipine Iſlands, thoſe of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Madagaſcar, part of South-America and Africa, and almoſt all captain Cook's diſcoveries, including the northern parts of New-Holland.

The *frigid zones* are thoſe regions around the pole, where the ſun does not riſe for ſome days in the winter, nor ſet for ſome days in the ſummer. The two poles are the centres of theſe zones, which extend from theſe points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and ſouthern parallels of latitude of ſixty-ſix degrees and an half. The part that lies in the northern hemiſphere, is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel, called the arctic or north polar circle; and that in the ſouthern hemiſphere is the ſouth frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or ſouth polar circle.

The northern *frigid zone* comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's bay, part of Greenland and Siberia. The ſouthern *frigid zone* has no land known to us; and from the obſervations of captain Cook, who, in the years 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, it is aſcertained that there is no habitable land in the ſouthern frigid zone. That celebrated navigator traverſed the ſouthern hemiſphere between the latitudes of 40° and 70°. He diſcovered nothing but mountains of floating ice, or heads of broken land buried under eternal froſt and ſnow, and utterly inacceſſible to man or beaſt.

The *two temperate zones* are the ſpaces contained between the tropics and polar circles.

The *northern* temperate zone contains almoſt all Europe, the greater part of Aſia, part of Africa, the United States of America, and the Britiſh colonies.

The *ſouthern* temperate zone comprehends the ſouth part of New Holland, the Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Horn.

CLIMATES.] The diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though of advantage to aſcertain in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for conveying an idea of the diſtance between one place and another. This, however, is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind, to know the ſituation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what are called climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth of it. The ancients, therefore, aſcertained how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day there. This made them ſuppoſe a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the poles, ſo the circles themſelves may be called, *climatical parallels*. This, therefore, was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhow, the deſign which firſt introduced it, may be better anſwered in another way. There are thirty climates between the

equator and the pole. In the firſt twenty-four, the days increaſe by half hours; but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe. We inſert a table which ſhows in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Long. Day. H.	M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, ſituated in every Climate, north of the Equator.
1	8	33	8	33	12	30	I. Within the firſt climate lie the Gold and Silver coaſts in Africa; Malacca, Cayenne, and Surinam.
2	16	43	8	10	13		II. Here lie Abyſſinia, Siam, Madras, Pondicherry, Straits of Darien, Tobago, the Grenadas, St. Vincent, Barbadoes.
3	24	10	7	27	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, Bombay, part of Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe.
4	30	46	6	36	14		IV. Egypt, the Canary Iſlands, Delhi, Gulf of Mexico, Eaſt-Florida, and the Havanna.
5	36	29	5	43	14	30	V. Gibraltar, part of the Mediterranean ſea, the Barbary coaſt, Jeruſalem, Iſpahan, Nankin, California, New-Mexico, Weſt-Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas.
6	41	21	4	52	15		VI. Liſbon, Madrid, Minorca, Sardinia, part of Greece, Aſia Minor, part of the Caſpian ſea, Samarcand, Pekin, Corea, Japan, Williamſburg, Maryland, & Philadelphia.
7	45	29	4	8	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain, Southern departments of France, Turin, Genoa, Rome, Conſtantinople, the Black ſea, the Caſpian ſea, part of Tartary, New-York & Boſton.
8	48	59	3	30	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna, Nova-Scotia, part of Newfoundland, and Canada.
9	51	55	2	56	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden, Cracow, ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia, part of Tartary, north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	28	2	33	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, part of Tartary, Warſaw, Labrador, and New-South-Wales.
11	56	36	2	8	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, and Moſcow.
12	58	25	1	49	18		XII. South part of Sweden, and Tobolſki, in Siberia.
13	59	58	1	33	18	30	XIII. Orkney iſles, and Stockholm.
14	61	16	1	18	19		XIV. Bergen, and Peterſburg.
15	62	29	1	8	19	30	XV. Hudſon's Straits.
16	63	20		56	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of Weſt-Greenland.
17	64	8		48	20	30	XVII. Drontheim.
18	64	48		40	21		XVIII. Part of Finland.
19	65	20		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel.
20	65	46		26	22		XX. Hecla.
21	66	6		20	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia, and Siberia.
22	66	19		13	23		XXII. New-North-Wales.
23	66	27		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits.
24	66	32		4	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21			1	Month	XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48			2	Months	XXVI. Weſt-Greenland.
27	73	37			3	Months	XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis.
28	78	30			4	Months	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	5			5	Months	XXIX. Spitzbergen, or Eaſt-Greenland.
30	90				6	Months	XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *latitude*, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, a place on the northern side of the equator is in north, and a place on the southern side is in south latitude. No place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, because the poles are at that distance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or, more properly, through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The intersection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, shows the true situation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *longitude* of a place, means its situation with regard to its meridian, and consequently is reckoned towards the east or west. In reckoning the longitude, there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another; but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes generally fix the first meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different nations where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London to Greenwich, the French globes, from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than one hundred and eighty degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being three hundred and sixty degrees, no place can be moved from another above half the distance; but some geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence, in sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, is exhibited in the following table.

A TABLE showing the number of Miles contained in a degree of Longitude, in each parallel of Latitude from the equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	19	56	73	37	47	92	55	34	41	73	17	54
2	59	94	20	56	38	38	47	28	56	33	55	74	16	53
3	59	92	21	56	01	39	46	63	57	32	67	75	15	52
4	59	86	22	55	63	40	45	96	58	31	79	76	14	51
5	59	77	23	55	23	41	45	28	59	30	90	77	13	50
6	59	67	24	54	81	42	44	59	60	30	00	78	12	48
7	59	55	25	54	38	43	43	88	61	29	09	79	11	45
8	59	42	26	53	93	44	43	16	62	28	17	80	10	42
9	59	26	27	53	46	45	42	43	63	27	24	81	09	38
10	59	09	28	52	98	46	41	68	64	26	30	82	08	35
11	58	89	29	52	48	47	40	92	65	25	36	83	07	32
12	58	68	30	51	96	48	40	15	66	24	41	84	06	28
13	58	46	31	51	43	49	39	36	67	23	45	85	05	23
14	58	22	32	50	88	50	38	57	68	22	48	86	04	18
15	57	95	33	50	32	51	37	76	69	21	51	87	03	14
16	57	67	34	49	74	52	36	94	70	20	52	88	02	09
17	57	38	35	49	15	53	36	11	71	19	54	89	01	05
18	57	06	36	48	54	54	35	26	72	18	55	90	00	00

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE ON THE ARTIFICIAL GLOBE FOUND.] To find the longitude and latitude of any place, we bring that place to the brazen meridian, and find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that, to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we compare the degrees of either thus found, with one another, and reduce these degrees into miles, according to the table above given; remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to sixty geographic miles, or sixty-nine and a half English.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The distances of places which lie in an oblique direction, that is, neither directly south, north, east, nor west, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For instance, extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be twenty-five degrees, which, at sixty miles to a degree, makes the distance fifteen hundred geographic miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a narrow pliant plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains ninety degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured, without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a small brass circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *The diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its surface in square, and its solidity in cubic measure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the first. Then multiply the said product by one-sixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the second. After the same manner we may find the surface and solidity of the natural globe, as also the whole body of the atmosphere surrounding the same, provided it be every where at the same height; for, having found its perpendicular height, by that common experiment of the ascent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, then double the height, and add the same to the diameter of the earth; afterwards multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, and from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, which will leave that of the atmosphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being set upon a true plane, raise the pole according to the given latitude, then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compass upon the pedestal, let the globe be so situated, as that the brazen meridian may stand due south and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, we have already given directions.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the same meridian the degree of latitude, whether south or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place desired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark, have the ſame latitude with the given place. (a) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the ſun's place in the ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon, and oppoſite the day, you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the ſun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted on the ecliptic, the ſame is the ſun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of the day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the ſun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII, which done, fix the globe at that ſituation, and the places exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, are thoſe deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole *(b)* according to the latitude of the given place; find the ſun's place in the ecliptic *(c)* at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII, and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touches the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index points, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of XII, for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof, to twenty-four hours, is the length of the night. (b) PROB. 2. (c) PROB. 6.

PROB. 9. *To know what o'clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed *(d)* according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place, wherever it is. (d) PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the ſun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the ſun's annual motion) on what days he paſſes through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic; for thoſe are the days in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the ſun then begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day being given (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter ſol-

ſtice), find *(e)* the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and count the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the ſun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the mark are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north, then making a mark, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark, are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

(e) PROB. 6.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the ſun conſtantly ſhines upon that place, and what days he is abſent; as alſo the firſt and laſt days of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and, obſerving its latitude, *(f)* elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian, from each ſide of the equator, as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and careſully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt, for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun conſtantly ſhines above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of that circle will give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point which are the days. In the interval he will riſe and ſet.

(f) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the ſun, when on the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being *(g)* found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark, exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian will ſucceſſively paſs under the mark.

(g) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the ſun then riſes and ſets in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and, finding the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſes. By turning the globe till his place coincides with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon that circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn, if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe till the ſame point touches the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII, reckoning them according to the motion of the index; for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. The ſhorteſt day and longeſt night are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is neither noon nor midnight, or any other particular hour, at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index point at the lower figure of XII, and at ſuch places as are then oppoſite the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index points at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour at ſome known place being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the ſun is vertical at that time.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic *(a)* being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then *(b)* find thoſe places of the earth, in whoſe meridian the ſun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforeſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place, to which the ſun is vertical at that time.

(a) PROB. 6.
(b) PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all thoſe places where the ſun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the meridian; conſequently, all thoſe places which are enlightened at that time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the braſs-meridian; unleſs the ſun be on or near ſome of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe, in which the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, thus; having found the place to which the ſun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the place to the brazen meridian. Then all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, have the ſun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle, have it ſetting; to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs-meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the ſun, and have the ſun juſt as many degrees above them, as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the ſun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are eighteen degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe that are eighteen degrees below the ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe that are lower than eighteen degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour-index be ſet to the upper XII, or noon, and then the globe be turned eaſtward on its axis; when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhow the time of ſun-ſet.

To thoſe places that do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day; and to thoſe which do not come above it, the ſun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the moon in the zodiac, and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when she shall rise and set, together with her southing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily at any time by an almanac; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem (a) PROB. 2. *(a)* elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the (b) PROB. 6. sun's place in the ecliptic at that time being *(b)* found and marked with chalk, as also the moon's place at the same, bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the moon's place successively meets with the eastern and western side of the horizon, as also the brazen meridian, and the index will point at those times, the particular hours of her rising, setting, and southing.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true distance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be sixty-nine and an half English miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true distance from a second place, to find thereby all other places of the earth of the same distance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of that place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon that quadrant the given distance between the first and second place, provided the same be under ninety degrees; otherwise you must use the semicircle of position, and marking where the reckoning ends, and moving the quadrant round upon the surface of the globe, all places passing under that mark are those desired.

Methods for finding the LATITUDES and LONGITUDES *of places from* CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

I. OF FINDING THE LATITUDE.] As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows, that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith distance of any celestial object whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus, if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north and south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But, if the sun or star hath either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or added to the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations. The method is this:

1. Observe, by a quadrant, the meridional distance of the sun from the zenith, which is always the complement of his meridian altitude; correct for the DIP of the horizon, and REFRACTION; and add to this the sun's declination, when the sun and the place are on the same side of the equator; or subtract the declination, when they are of different sides; the sum in the former case, and the difference in the latter, will be the *latitude* required. But when the declination of the sun is greater than the latitude of the place, which is known from the sun's being nearer to the elevated pole, than the zenith of the place is, as it frequently happens in the torrid zone, then the difference between the sun's declination, and his zenith distance, is the *latitude* of the place.

If the ſun or ſtar has no declination, but moves in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridi anal altitude, and conſequently his meridional altitude is the complement of the *latitude* to ninety. This method is beſt accommodated to the uſes of navigation, as being practicable at ſea; but, for obſervations at land, another method may be pointed out.

2. The altitude of the pole, it has been already ſhown, is always equal to the *latitude*; for which reaſon, the *latitude* might be beſt found by obſerving the pole's height; but, as the pole is only a mathematical point, and no ways to be obſerved by our ſenſes, its height cannot be determined in the ſame manner as that of the ſun and ſtars, &c. for which reaſon another manner has been contrived.

In order to this, a meridian line is firſt drawn. Place a quadrant on this line, ſo that its plan may be in the plane of the meridian; then take ſome ſtar near the pole, v. gr. the pole ſtar (which never ſets) and obſerve both its greateſt and leaſt altitude. Half the difference, deducted from the greateſt altitude, or added to the leaſt, will give the altitude of the pole above the horizon, which is equal to the latitude of the place.

II. Of finding the longitude.] To diſcover an exact method of finding the *longitude* at ſea, is a problem that has extremely perplexed the mathematicians of theſe two laſt ages; and for the ſolution of which, great rewards have been publicly offered by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations; this being almoſt the only improvement wanting to render navigation perfect.

In the year 1598, Philip the third of Spain offered a reward of one thouſand crowns for the ſolution of this problem: this example was followed by the States General, who offered ten thouſand florins. In 1635, John Morrin, profeſſor of mathematics at Paris, propoſed a method of reſolving it to cardinal Richelieu. Though the commiſſioners, who were appointed to examine his method, judged it inſufficient on account of the imperfection of the lunar tables, cardinal Marazin, in 1645, procured for him a penſion of two thouſand livres. In 1714, an act was paſſed by the Britiſh parliament, appropriating a ſum, not exceeding two thouſand pounds, towards making neceſſary experiments; and granting a reward of ten thouſand pounds to the perſon that ſhould determine the *longitude* at ſea, to one degree of a great circle, or ſixty geographical miles; fifteen thouſand pounds, if the longitude be determined to two thirds of the diſtance; and twenty thouſand pounds, if it be determined to half that diſtance.

It ſhould be obſerved, that the difference of longitude between any two places might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens was ſeen in thoſe places. For, ſince the ſun and fixed ſtars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the ſame thing, the earth revolves about its axis, in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there paſſes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of three hundred and ſixty degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to fifteen degrees; and a proportional part in a greater or leſſer time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities of making obſervations of this kind. For, as theſe appearances conſiſt in their approaches to, or paſſing by one another; and as theſe approaches, when they happen, are ſeen at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time in all parts of the earth where they are viſible, excepting ſo far as they are affected by parallax; therefore, by knowing the relative times of the day, when ſuch appearances are ſeen in two diſtant places, the difference between thoſe times is known, and, conſequently, the difference of longitude between thoſe two places; always obſerving, that for every hour of time you muſt allow fifteen degrees of longitude either eaſt or weſt, according as the time is either ſooner or later than the time marked out for ſuch appearances to happen; at Greenwich, for inſtance, from whence the firſt Britiſh meridian commences.

Several almanacs are annually publiſhed, in which the times of the eclipſes of the ſun, moon, and Jupiter's ſatellities; the riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing of the planets; the approaches of the moon to certain fixed ſtars; and other celeſtial appearances, are determined with regard to ſome meridian. By the help of one of theſe books, and a careful obſervation of theſe appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipſes of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For, as theſe eclipſes are occaſioned by an interpoſition of the earth between the moon and the ſun, and conſequently ſhe is immerſed in the earth's ſhadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the ſolar rays, it is viſible to all thoſe people who can ſee her, at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time. Hence, by obſerving the beginning, middle, or end of the eclipſe of the moon in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of theſe phenomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the ſame eclipſe adapted to ſome other meridian, the difference of time, and conſequently difference of longitude, between thoſe two places, will be known.

Suppoſe, for inſtance, the beginning of an eclipſe of the moon happened at London ſixteen minutes after two in the morning, and at thirty-four minutes, twenty ſeconds after nine in the evening at Boſton, in New England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty ſeconds, equal to ſeventy degrees, twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and becauſe the time is leſs at Boſton, than at London, the difference of longitude will be weſt. Conſequently if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boſton will be ſeventy degrees twenty-five minutes weſt. See Ferguſon's Aſtronomy, chap. xi.

The longitude of places may alſo be obtained from the obſervations of ſolar eclipſes; but theſe, being encumbered with the conſideration of parallaxes, are much leſs adapted to that purpoſe than thoſe of the moon.

But, as the eclipſes of the ſun and moon happen but ſeldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites. That planet has four moons or ſatellites, moving round him at different diſtances, and in different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipſed almoſt every night; for they diſappear, either in going behind Jupiter, or in paſſing before him: and the inſtant of ſuch immerſions may be ſeen by a refracting telescope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The paſſage of the moon or the ſuperior planets over the meridian, affords another method of diſcovering the longitude; for, by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets paſſes the meridian of ſome place, and finding, by obſervation, the time when the object paſſes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time, converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is ſtill another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the approaches of the moon to certain fixed ſtars*, and their eclipſes by reaſon of her body. For, the moon finiſhing her revolution in twenty-ſeven days, ſeven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when ſhe does not paſs over, or near ſome fixed ſtars, that the time of the neareſt approach, or the viſible conjunction may be eaſily obſerved. Marking exactly the apparent time of theſe obſervations, and knowing the latitude of the place, its longitude may thence be computed.

It will be obvious to every reflecting reader, that, as many of the above obſervations muſt be made by a teleſcope, the conſtant motion of a ſhip under ſail will render it impoſſible to make them at ſea, with any ſufficient accuracy. To remedy this

* The calculation in this case is encumbered with parallax, like those of eclipses of the sun.

inconvenience, mr. Chriſtopher Irvin invented what he called a marine chair. This chair was tried by mr. Maſkelyne, in his voyage to Barbadoes, who found it totally impracticable to derive any advantage from it. And beſides, ſince all methods which depend upon the phenomena of the heavens, have alſo this other defect, that they cannot be obſerved at all times, it becomes a great deſideratum in navigation to diſcover ſome other method of aſcertaining the longitude at ſea.

It is well known, that if a time-keeper could be made with ſufficient accuracy, ſo as to keep exact time, by having ſuch a clock or watch on board, the longitude might be eaſily determined; for, by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing it with the time then ſhown by ſuch a machine, the difference of longitude between thoſe places will be determined. The ingenious mr. Harriſon, a few years ſince, completed ſuch a time-keeper, which was found upon trial, to anſwer even beyond the moſt ſanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thouſand pounds from the Britiſh government, as a reward for his diſcovery.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place; and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude; that is, to what the latitude wants of ninety degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth, where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, twelve hours each, at all times of the year; for, although the ſun declines alternately from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth, between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. twelve hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial; for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of ninety degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6 The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra; for, in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of its days and nights; and the more remote, the contrary; the circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heavens every twenty-four hours, being cut more nearly equal; in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for, in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For there can be no place

between the tropics, but there will be two points in the ecliptic, whose declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches: and as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when he is in the nearest tropic, continues twenty-four hours above the horizon, without setting; because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the sun is in the farthest tropic, he is, for the same length of time, without rising; because no part of that tropic is above the horizon. At all other times of the year, he rises and sets there as in other places; because all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or less cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the sun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal course must be in one or the other of these circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemisphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longest day and shortest night is, when the sun is in the northern tropic; and the shortest day and longest night is, when the sun is in the southern tropic; because no circle of the sun's daily motion is so much above the horizon, and so little below it, as the northern tropic; and none so little above it, and so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, the contrary is the case.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the sun appears for some number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without setting; and, at the opposite time of the year, without rising; because some part of the ecliptic never sets in the former case, and as much of the opposite part never rises in the latter. And the nearer to, or the more remote from the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continual presence or absence.

13. If a ship sets out from any port, and sails round the earth eastward to the same port again, whatever time she takes to perform her voyage, the people on board in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port; because by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get so much the sooner above the setting sun than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a complete day of that sort at their return; without gaining one moment of absolute time more than is elapsed, during their course, to the people at the port. If they sail westward, they will reckon one day less than the people at the port; because, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep him each particular day so much longer above their horizon as answers to that day's course; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time.

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, and meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE constituent parts of the earth are two, *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, islands, peninsulas, isthmuses, promontories, capes, coasts, mountains, &c. The land is divided into two great continents (besides the islands) viz. the *eastern* and *western*. The eastern is subdivided into three parts, viz. Europe,

or the north-weſt; Aſia, or the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over) on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, ſixty or ſeventy miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or nations, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water; as America. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, wholly ſurrounded by water; as Great-Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*; as the iſthmus of Suez which unites Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien which unites North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good-Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſarts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe) viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic Ocean divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is three thouſand miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is about ten thouſand miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt-Indies and Africa, being about three thouſand miles wide.

An *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake Erie, lake Ontario. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibralter, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*; as the Baltic ſound. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it communicates with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean: if it does not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*; as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips; as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe ſmaller diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But, in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water which we have deſcribed, it is proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean. An iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of the ſea. And an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſponds to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial contents of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square miles.
The Globe — —	148,510,627
Seas and unknown parts —	117,843,821
The habitable world * —	30,666,806
Europe — —	2,749,349
Asia — —	10,257,487
Africa — —	8,506,208
America — —	9,153,762
Persian empire under Darius	1,650,000
Roman empire at its utmost height	1,610,000
Russian — —	3,376,485
Chinese — —	1,749,000
Great Mogul — —	1,116,000
Turkish — —	960,057
British, exclusive of settlements in Africa	809,996
Present Persian —	800,000

Islands.

	Square miles.
Borneo — —	228,000
Madagascar —	168,000
Sumatra — —	129,000
Japan — —	118,000
Great Britain —	72,926
Celebes — —	68,400
Manilla — —	58,500
Iceland — —	46,000
Terra del Fuego —	42,075
Mindanao — —	39,200
Cuba — —	38,400
Java — —	38,250

Islands.	Square miles.
Hispaniola	36,000
Newfoundland	35,500
Ceylon	27,730
Ireland	27,457
Formosa	17,000
Anian	11,900
Gilolo	10,400
Sicily	9400
Timor	7800
Sardinia	6600
Cyprus	6300
Jamaica	6000
Flores	6000
Ceram	5400
Breton	4000
Socatra	3600
Candia	3220
Porto Rico	3200
Corsica	2520
Zealand	1935
Majorca	1400
St. Jago	1400
Negropont	1300
Teneriffe	1272
Gothland	1000
Madeira	950
St. Michael	920

Islands.	Sq. miles.
Skye	900
Lewis	880
Funen	768
Yvica	625
Minorca	520
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	420
Amboyna	400
Orkney Pomona	324
Scio	300
Martinico	260
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zant	120
Antigua	100
St. Christopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernsey	50
Jersey	43
Bermudas	40
Rhode Island	42

To these islands may be added the following, which have latey been discovered, or more fully explored. Their exact dimensions are not ascertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largest, which is supposed to be nearly equal in size to the whole continent of Europe.

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite, or King George's Island,
Friendly Islands,
Marquesas,
Easter, or Davis's Island.

We cannot finish the theory of the earth, without considering winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its surface principally arise.

WINDS.] The earth is every where surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends several miles above its surface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of air, is heat; the general cause of its contraction, is cold. Hence, if any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general; and a breeze, gale, or storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are

* The number of inhabitants in the known world, have been computed at nine hundred and fifty-three millions. The calculation must be extremely vague and erroneous; we, however, annex it. Let the reader exercise his own judgment on it.

Europe is supposed to contain,	153 Millions.
Asia, - -	500
Africa, - -	150
America, - -	150
Total	953 Millions.

commonly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity, in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude to thirty degrees ſouth, there are conſtant eaſt winds throughout the year, blowing on the the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, called the *Trade Winds*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means, a ſtream or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is, to mention facts rather than theories.

It is likewiſe found, that in ſome parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called *Monſoons*, which blow half the year in one direction, and half the year in another. At the change of theſe Monſoons, which always happens at the equinoxes, there are terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, wind and rain. It is diſcovered, alſo, that in the ſame latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blow from the land in the night and great part of the morning, and from the ſea about noon, till midnight. Theſe, however, do not extend two or three leagues from the ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea, in Africa, the wind blows always from the eaſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru, in South-America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape de Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with violent thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.] By the *tides* is meant the regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity till ſir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction; for, having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their diſtance; it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately below the moon muſt be drawn towards it, and conſequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places, where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former; for, in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than any other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for, as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places, to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on the globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called *ſpring tides*; for, at theſe times, the action of both the ſun and moon is united, and draws in the ſame ſtrait line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are

on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary, twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *neap tides*; for, in theſe quarters, the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them; ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but, ſince there is a multitude of iſlands, and continents, which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects, which have a ſhare in producing them.

CURRENTS.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the ocean, which impel ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama iſlands, which always runs from ſouth to north.

This is called the *Gulf ſtream*, which is probably generated by the great accumulation of water on the eaſtern coaſt of America between the tropics, by the trade winds which conſtantly blow there. This vaſt quantity of water runs down in a ſtrong current through the Weſt-India iſlands into the bay of Mexico, and from thence, iſſuing through the gulf of Florida, proceeds along the coaſts to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off towards, and runs down through, the weſtern iſlands. From the thermometer, it appears, that the ſtream is always warmer than the ſea on each ſide of it. Nor is it to be wondered at, that ſo vaſt a body of deep warm water, ſeveral leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and iſſuing thence into the northern ſeas, ſhould retain its warmth longer than the twenty or thirty days required for its paſſing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and it is too deep to be ſuddenly cooled by paſſing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it, however, may receive ſo much warmth from it, as to be rarefied and to riſe, being rendered lighter than the air on each ſide of the ſtream; hence thoſe airs muſt flow in to ſupply the place of the riſing warm air, and meeting with each other, form thoſe tornadoes and water-ſpouts frequently met with, and ſeen near and over the ſtream; and as the vapour from a cup of tea, in a warm room, and the breath of an animal in the ſame room, are hardly viſible, but become perceptible immediately when out in the cold air; ſo the vapour from the gulf-ſtream, in warm latitudes, is ſcarcely viſible; but when it comes into the cool air from Newfoundland, it is condenſed into fogs for which thoſe parts are ſo remarkable.

The power of wind to raiſe water above its common level in the ſea, is known in America, by the high tides occaſioned in all our ſea-ports, when a ſtrong north-eaſter blows againſt the gulf-ſtream.

The concluſion from theſe remarks is, that as it muſt greatly impede a ſhip which, through its captain's ignorance, is ſtemming this current againſt her, at the rate of three miles an hour; ſo a veſſel from Europe to North America may ſhorten her paſſage by avoiding the ſtream, in which the thermometer will be uſeful; and a veſſel from America to Europe may derive equal advantage by keeping in it.*

A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the ſound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel; ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head lands in the middle of the

* The reader may ſee more upon this ſubject (extremely intereſting to mariners) in dr. Franklin's philoſophical papers, where he will find a chart of this ſtream.

ocean, the tides rife very little; but in fome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they rife from twelve to fifty feet.

MAPS.] A map is a repreſentation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth; but a map repreſents it only as a plane ſurface does one that is ſpherical. But, although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude;* and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude.* The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in one corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles; which ſhows that London is two hundred and ten miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridian and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps, as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of water is ſometimes expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing, than in this ſort of meaſure. Not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries, compared with the Engliſh* by dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of five thouſand two hundred and eighty feet, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty yards, or eight furlongs.

The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than three quarters of the Engliſh mile.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile, are nearly one Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about one and a quarter Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile are about an Engliſh mile and a half.
The Indian is almoſt three Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, are about three and half Engliſh.
The German is more than four Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, are from five to ſix Engliſh.
The French common league is near three Engliſh, and
The Engliſh marine league is three Engliſh miles.

* The American and Engliſh miles are the ſame.

PART II.

Of the Origin of NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, and COMMERCE.

TO prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country, which we ſhall deſcribe, it has been thought neceſſary to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation, during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates, which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant; but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This is a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſibly requiſite to the proper comprehenſion of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography; and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

It appears, in general, from the firſt chapters in Geneſis, that the world, before the deluge, was extremely populous; and that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and become extremely vicious both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave riſe to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were deſtroyed. The Before Christ, 2348. deluge took place in the 1656th year of this world, produced a very great change on the ſoil and atmoſphere of the globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which hath ever ſince made ſuch havoc in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling the earth, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations, under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears, that hunting was the principal occupation for ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired renown; and was enabled to obtain an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found, at Babylon, the B. C. 2247. firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebais, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was ob- B. C. 1921. literated and obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period, the hiſtory of ancient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of importance.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties, before they diſcovered an inclination to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, ſoon became a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very great, ſince, in one of theſe expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſehold, ſet

upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. The particular governments into which this country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, had become the founder of an empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws adopted in Egypt, and which had been admired for their wiſdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts, or ſeparate departments; and councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down, in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; which the Romans have tranſmitted to the preſent inhabitants of Europe. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur; who, fired by the deſtructive and accurſed ſpirit of conqueſt, extended the bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, under the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, was the ſtock from whom the Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands on the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, whence ſome wanderers probably paſſed over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about two thouſand years before the Chriſtian era, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved; and the ancient Greeks, who ſeem at this time to have been as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again ſunk into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful. B. C. 1850

But the hiſtory of the Iſraelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. Jacob died, according to the Septuagint verſion, ſeventeen hundred and ninety-four years before Chriſt, but according to the Hebrew chronology, only ſixteen hundred and eighty-nine years, and in the year of the world, two thouſand three hundred and fifteen. This is a remarkable era with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity; and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period, then, in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations. B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of

antiquity as on the ſame footing. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous; and hence they conclude, that all were in that ſituation. Many, falling into the oppoſite extreme, on finding other nations acquainted with various arts, and in a pretty advanced ſtate of civilization, infer from hence the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civilized Americans, and their aboriginal neighbours, the Indians. Thoſe nations who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made improvements in thoſe arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture was a common employment in the firſt ages of the world. In the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of husbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed, that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations which live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals came to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal was weighed in preſence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains became more common, the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. It appears, from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was in his time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. If we reflect, that the commodities of Arabia were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we ſhall conclude, that Egypt was much improved in arts and refinement; for people do not think of luxuries, until the uſeful arts have made high advancement among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. The people ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt in the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce. They were diſtinguiſhed by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks, by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they exerted themſelves to improve their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and, with all the writers of Pagan antiquity, they are regarded as inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. If we may believe Herodotus, in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had, at a very early period, navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce and navigation, imply the knowledge of ſeveral others; aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. It had been a cuſtom among other

nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or ſeven days. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve, that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people who lived by agriculture, and who were acquainted with the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which muſt have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an amazing improvement in aſtronomy. But with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a frightful ſpectacle during this period. The Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and every elegant art, were then a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting rocks and caverns, a prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to one another.

We might naturally expect, that as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. But this is far from being the caſe. We only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who ſucceeded Semiramis and Ninus, in the Aſſyrian throne, we find a chaſm in the hiſtory of this empire, for no leſs that eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject, is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are unhappily the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs culpably unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have aſcended the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, about the year before Chriſt 1492. By his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very great improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was, in all probability, the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth. But ancient hiſtory often excites without gratifying our curioſity. For, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a flouriſhing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, the ſeat of learning and politeneſs, owed its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituation they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage were not known in Greece Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the government of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the turbulent paſſions of a rude people.

B. C. 1965

B. C. 1556.

B. C. 1506.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other provinces, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon to think of ſome expedient, by which he might unite in one plan of politics the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions, which muſt render them a prey to each other, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflexions he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his

B. C. 1496.

eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and compoſed what, after the name of its founder was called the Amphictyonic council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphictyon, likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connexions are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches, which from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire.

Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Chriſt, 1322, the Iſthmian games were celebrated at Corinth, and in 1303, the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar. The Greek ſtates, which formerly had no connexion with each other, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was

B. C. 1263. to open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of, though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that ſeveral were employed in the expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, was long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour. They ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This, in the fabulous language of antiquity, is expreſſed by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs important than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern diſcoverers. From this expedition to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover Helen, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off

B. C. 1184. by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made ſome conſiderable progreſs in arts, and arms. No leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. But theſe veſſels were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, we may readily conceive the ſtrength and elegance of this fleet.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great part of the preſent work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable reſemblance between the political ſituation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided in the adminiſtration of

their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety, there were ſeveral other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans or tribes was not leſs conſiderable than that of the chieftain over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with each other, and ſometimes with their ſovereign. Such a ſituation was, in all reſpects, extremely unfavourable. Each particular ſtate was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another great ſtateſman, to combine the diſcordant materials, and form them into one grand whole. Theſeus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had acquired a great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and conceived, that by means of the influence of his perſonal character, united to the authority with which he was inveſted, he might be able to remove them. For this purpoſe, he endeavoured to increaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans; he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither, ſtrangers from all quarters, by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed this city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendour of Athens and of Theſeus, now totally eclipſed that of the other villages, and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, by being diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which, in a ſhort time, proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes; the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of perſons. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians became weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which, from that time, had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they

acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our principal attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be agreeable and intereſting, to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority. They eſtabliſhed a perpetual magiſtrate, B. C. 1070, who, under the name of archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame rights their king had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became ſenſible that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again demanded a reduction of the power of their archons; and it was determined, B. C. 684, that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but were accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly poſſible that the ancient cuſtoms, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians. This engaged the wiſer part of the citizens, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of laws, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, about the year 628, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "his laws were written not with ink, but with blood." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of almoſt every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again returned to confuſion and diſorder, and remained ſo till the time of Solon. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue and wiſdom, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, excepting thoſe relative to murder. Death was continued the puniſhment of this crime; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law; and his eſtabliſhments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He divided the citizens into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed; and the pooreſt claſs he rendered incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But, leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſts of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the ſenate and areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, an hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important buſineſs that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained great aſcendancy in the councils of the republic.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To enlarge on all of them,

therefore, is hardly neceſſary, and would oblige us to tranſgreſs our limits. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it ought not to be omitted in a ſketch of this kind. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to have been the firſt king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length two brothers, Euriſthenes, and Procles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in royalty; and what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule jointly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, *anno* two hundred and twenty before the Chriſtian era. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form, which renders it ſo remarkable until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and, in general, in all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, it having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution, conſiſted in this, that in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war, as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing which had the ſmalleſt tendency to enervate the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money; they lived at the public tables on the coarſeſt fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks, capable of bearing arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation, rather than a hardſhip, and they behaved in it with a ſpirit, of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

B. C. 1102.

B. C. 884.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect, under one point of view, the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires, of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned, in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period, to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year B. C. five hundred and twenty-four, the Egyptians were, fortunately for themſelves and their neighbours, more celebrated for the wiſdom of their laws and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria, likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglected the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, juſtly fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis, governor of Babylon, conſpired againſt their ſovereign, whom they defeated. Sardanapalus ſet fire to his palace, and periſhed in the flames, B. C. eight hundred and twenty; and they divided between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway of Aſia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria, anno B. C. ſeven hundred and ſeventy-ſeven,

B. C. 781.

and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten tribes captive into Aſſyria, and Media, B. C. ſeven hundred and twenty-one. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, alſo in the year B. C. five hundred and eighty-ſeven, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year one thouſand and fifty-five, and conquered all the countries around him. But in the year five hundred and thirty-eight, Cyrus took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people, brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, that we ſhould enter on the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. The era of Cyrus is, in one reſpect, remarkable, beſides delivering the Jews from their captivity, becauſe, with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider, then, the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences; and, if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

B. C. 538.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh; neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and two thouſand ſix hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. The top is thirteen feet ſquare. The ſecond ſtands on as much ground as the firſt, but is forty feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body, ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures. But the orders of architecture were not yet known. The arts, in which, next to architecture, theſe nations principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they beſtowed their principal attention on aſtronomy; but it does not appear that they made much progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the lateſt periods of their government. The countries which they occupied, were extremely fruitful, and afforded, without much labour, all the neceſſaries and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy, and made them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and of conſequence brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art; when ſtrength and courage were the qualities which gave the chief advantage to one nation over

another; when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which, in modern times, have been found ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard; but, when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus, gave, by their ambition, an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of the inſtitutions of Lycurgus. Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, B. C. 504. when the luſt of univerſal empire, led Darius, at the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and becauſe the Athenians had burnt the city of Sardis, to ſend forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers, who, under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe minds were animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, on the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, B. C. 490. the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thou- B. C. 480. ſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained; but, that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice among the eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. But though the Perſian war concluded honourably for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired the ſpoils of Perſia—it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connexion with the Perſians, after the concluſion of it—which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with each other; their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and involved the other ſtates of Greece. B. C. 431. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon, a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful, rendered himſelf, by the battle of Cheronæa, maſter of Greece. But this conqueſt did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had, by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gain- B. C. 338. ed ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have ſubjected Greece to him, had he failed at Cheronæa. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their manners having degenerated, their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanc-

tion to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators, in moſt of their ſtates, were bribed into the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of Demoſthenes, was ineffectual againſt the mean, ſeducive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of gaining their affections.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece; but he did not long ſurvive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for their expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on
B. C. 334. the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this deſtructive ravager, falſely termed the great, in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors both ancient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the world. His name, which ought to be held up to deteſtation, has received from ſervile and baſe hiſtorians, thoſe eulogies due, not to the deſtroyers, but to the benefactors and ſaviours of mankind.

Soon after his rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alexander died at Baby-
B. C. 323. lon. His generals, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided his dominions among them. This gave riſe to a number of eras and events too complicated for our preſent purpoſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering, therefore, the ſtate of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple and more important.

The bare names of illuſtrious men, who flouriſhed in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt degree of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, was a celebrated ſculptor. Zeuxis, Parrhaſius, and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſplayed the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Heſiod and Homer, who flouriſhed a thouſand years before the chriſtian era, the tragic poets Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt great improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing; Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it remained for Thucydides and Demoſthenes to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with great ſucceſs. Not to mention Socrates, the excellence of whoſe philoſophy juſtly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, will not ſuffer on compariſon with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could reach.

War was fatally reduced to a ſcience among the Greeks. And military renown being the moſt dazzling and captivating, and at the ſame time the moſt infallible means of acquiring an aſcendancy among the people, the reſtleſs, ambitious ſpirit

of their leaders involved them in almoſt inceſſant hoſtilities with their neighbours, and with each other. This renders their hiſtory little more than a record of frightful carnage, which the writers of all ages have exhauſted themſelves in celebrating. But we muſt leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of inſignificance. But, when we conſider him as the founder of ſuch an extenſive empire, whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot fail to be intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was martial and rapacious; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a moſt inviting opportunity for the gratification of his propenſity to rapine and conqueſt. Romulus was continually embroiled with his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected to aggrandize themſelves, or even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying tribes whom he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the arts or arms they employed, any advantage, Romulus immediately adopted them, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both the maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a height of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus, having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly rejected the latter, and adopted the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the ſenate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for reſtraining the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers; and, after a long and turbulent reign, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate which he himſelf had inſtituted. B. C. 753. B. C. 717.

Numa, who ſucceeded to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the brutality of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonoring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and, with it, the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprizes. In the room of kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the power of their ſovereigns. This form of government, thro' the deſire the conſuls entertained of diſtinguiſhing their B. C. 509.

ſhort adminſtration by ſome victory or conqueſt, was extremely favourable to the deſtructive ſpirit of ravage and ſubjugation, which prevailed among the Romans, and which made them, for ſo many ages, the curſe and ſcourge of the human race, as far as their power or arms extended. They readily contrived pretences, often the moſt frivolous and contemptible, to attack the neighbouring ſtates, one after another; and found little difficulty in ſubduing them ſingly; their whole policy being invariably directed to aggrandizement and conqueſt. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour, by every conſideration that influences the human heart, and that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, we need not be ſurpriſed that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power throughout Italy.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, and too reſtleſs to remain inactive or in peace, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had, ſome time before Rome, been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in Africa, by a colony of Phœnicians, B. C. 869; and, according to the practice of their mother country, had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs, in both of which they had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. Carthage commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides the coaſt of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide through the ſtraits. Thus, miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans eagerly ſeized on a pretect for taking up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage had been a powerful republic, when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe became corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars. The Roman republic, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted.

B. C. 264.

A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he was ſent back on his parole, to negociate an exchange of priſoners. He maintained in the ſenate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and he returned to a certain death.

B. C. 260.

B. C. 256.

Neither was Carthage, tho' corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies with whom the Romans had to contend, Hannibal was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading Hannibal to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans. The gallant boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could efface. Being appoint-

ed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſed the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and deſcended upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatened the fall of Rome. Sicily was allied with the conqueror. Hieronymus king of Syracuſe, declared againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandoned them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preſervation to ſome great men. Fabius Maximus was the grand inſtrument of averting the impending deſtruction. By avoiding an engagement, he gained time for the Romans to recover their fortitude. Marcellus raiſed the ſiege of Nola, took Syracuſe, and revived the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The ſucceſs of Scipio confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he went into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacked New Carthage, and carried it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, Carthage trembled in her turn, and ſaw her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, was in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage, ſubdued, and rendered tributary, gave hoſtages, and engaged never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people.

B. C. 213.

B. C. 210.

B. C. 201.

Before the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had conſiderable wars, but unimportant victories; after this event, its wars were inconſiderable, and its victories great. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; the one was ravaged by the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was deſolated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander. The ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Achaians, and Boetians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. The Etolians were the moſt powerful. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiorty, which in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his neighbours. Philip, the reigning mornarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps: the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependants. The Etolians, diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal, too, had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much as that of the Etolians; for, inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and being overcome with difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now purſued Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compelled him to ſubmit to a humiliating treaty.

B. C. 190.

In theſe conqueſts, the Romans allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which denomination, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to

be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates king of Pontus, for the ſpace of twenty-ſix years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men, whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince, who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at laſt compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was finally ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The fame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians, leſs formidable than the Roman legions, retired to their wilds and deſarts. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an eternal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt periods of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes aroſe betwixt them and the patricians, in which the popular party had generally the advantage. Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their property, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, almoſt always named patricians. But when the Romans, after the conqueſt of foreign nations, had introduced their luxuries and refinements; when they were tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of virtue on either ſide, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the higher orders were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, conquered, and plundered. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their countrymen. Thoſe who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their ſupporting ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would probably have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

B. C. 106.

B. C. 107.

Julius Ceſar, at length, appeared. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained to his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, was overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Ceſar became victorious almoſt at the ſame time over all the world—in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he was acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in

B. C. 48.

the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius attempted to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they delivered the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic, through the general corruption and depravity, did not obtain its freedom. It fell into the hands of Mark Anthony: Ceſar Octavius, nephew to Julius Ceſar, wreſted it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium. Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remained the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations; and, while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter at Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Grecian, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than ambaſſadors, from all quarters of the known world, crouded to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſued for peace; the Parthians, who had been a formidable enemy, courted his friendſhip; India ſought his alliance; Pannonia acknowledged him her maſter. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhut the temple of Janus. The world was at peace under his power. At this time was born Jeſus Chriſt, four years before the common era.

B. C. 44.

B. C. 31.

B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the conſular government was eſtabliſhed, learning and the arts made very little progreſs at Rome. Agriculture, and the ſtudy of arms, principally engaged the public attention. An adequate idea may be formed of their Vandalic diſregard of works of art, by the edict of Mummius, who, having deſtroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the moſt eminent artiſts of Greece, to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if they were loſt in the paſſage, they ſhould be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the ſciences in more requeſt at Rome. Some of the ableſt philoſophers of Greece coming to Rome in the time of Cato the elder, he ordered them to depart the city, leſt the minds of the youth ſhould be corrupted by philoſophy, and rendered too effeminate for military achievements. They had, for a long ſeries of years, no written laws at Rome. Thoſe of Solon, brought from Greece, were the firſt that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, becauſe they were written in twelve departments. Theſe conſtituted the civil law of the Romans. They were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the ſenate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors.

After the deſtruction of Carthage and the ſtates of Greece, when the Romans had no rival to fear, they applied themſelves to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of the Grecian magnificence, which were ſent to Rome, inſpired them with a deſire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artiſts. Whatever was elegant, whatever was curious, whatever was beautiful, might be conſulted without trouble or expenſe. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artiſts, never equalled the finiſhed models of their maſters. Eloquence had been long ſtudied at Rome; but it did not reach its greateſt height till Cicero appeared. His orations are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. Cicero gave cadence and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown. He was to Rome what Demoſthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country; they both carried eloquence to the higheſt perfection it ever attained. The poetry of Virgil is equal to any work produced by the Greeks, except the Iliad of Homer. The odes of Horace have not commonly the majeſty and ſublimity of Pindar; but they abound in beauties of another kind; a delicacy of ſentiment, a ſmooth flow of harmonious verſe, and the moſt lively images conveyed in the moſt correct language. The ſtyle of Livy, though

varied to infinity, is every where equal: ſimple without meanneſs; elegant and florid without affectation; great and ſublime without being tumid; full of force and ſweetneſs; always clear; and always intelligible. Tacitus did not flouriſh till after the reign of Auguſtus; nor has his ſtyle the purity of the writers in that age of literary rivalſhip. For ſome farther remarks on the writers of ancient Rome, we muſt refer to the literary article of ITALY.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an era, which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not, indeed, aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they, in their turn, trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of the government, we need only recal to our minds the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance, therefore, to conſider the character of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army; nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed with that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline, not of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus; and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties which the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were on both ſides bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte, the inhabitants periſhed in the field; many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. Yet the barbarous nations, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the parts of Germany which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries to the north of Europe, and the north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder, or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this could not daunt men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper. They returned to their companions, acquaint-

ed them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own; they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, with the friends they had loſt, and warmed them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted, were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe, in their turn, puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred, and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon a period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe its horror. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations,* are the epithets by which they diſtinguiſh Attila, the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor in the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to invaders. A.D. 328.

Rome became then known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*. The former, weakened by this diviſion, became a prey to the barbarous nations, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftan, was ſeated on the throne of the Ceſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages; and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient diſcipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with all the luxuries of the world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon a favorite diſh. The tyranny, and the depravity of manners, that prevailed under the emperors, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations that overcame them. A.D. 476.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature, remained. New forms of governments, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the ſixteenth century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human

mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy; and that of Alfred the great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century, endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and gave their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *feudal ſyſtem.* The king or general, who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed, to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and, in diſtributing portions of their lands among thier dependants, annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But this ſyſtem, calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, degenerated into a ſyſtem of moſt grievous oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. The latter were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and, together with it, were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and fought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter.*

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of ſelling new privileges to towns. Perhaps their avarice was as powerful a motive to this ſaltuary meaſure, as ſage political views. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council, and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of mankind, as rouſed them from that ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive the ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the weſt. In this city, ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved. This, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. The inhabitants communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades, which were begun by the chriſtian powers of Europe, with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object

A.D. 1096.

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in the unpartitioned part of Poland; a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as till the year 1748. And even in England, very numerous relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

of theſe expeditions was conqueſt, and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effect were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariner's compaſs was invented, A. D. 1302. which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the eaſt, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taſte for elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants were eſtabliſhed in every different kingdom. They become the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe.

While the Italians, in the ſouth of Europe, cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awaked in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were, at that time, extremely barbarous, and inveſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders, which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic league;* wich became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores; and, in different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not leſs uſeful commodities of the north.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advntage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and A. D. 1350. ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, had totally neglected commerce, and not even attempted thoſe manufactures the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts, which have raiſed the Engliſh to their high rank among commercial nations.

The chriſtian princes, after their great loſſes in the cruſades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendſhip of the great khans of Tartary, whoſe fame in arms had reached the moſt remote corners of Europe and Aſia, that they might be ſome check on the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the chriſtian name; and who, from a contemptible horde of wanderers, ſerving occaſionaly in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profeſſion of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of theſe ſovereigns. The Engliſh philoſopher, Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, wich are to be found in Purchas's pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of this deſcription, who committed his diſcoveries to writing was John du plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from Pope Innocent to the great Khan of Tartary, in favour of the chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies? Tamberlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the moſt remote extremities of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt-Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable.

A. D. 1405.

In the introduction to a work of this kind, it will be expected that we ſhould give a ſhort account of the riſe and progreſs of navigation, in modern times; and of the original ſource of thoſe diſcoveries both by ſea and by land, which have ſo wonderfully extended the ideas of the human ſpecies, and their acquaintance with each other, even in the remoteſt regions of the globe. The utility, or rather neceſſity of ſuch a narrative, to render many paſſages of the ſubſequent work intelligible, will form a ſatisfactory excuſe for the length to which it may extend.

By degrees, the calamities and deſolaton brought upon the weſtern provinces of the Roman empire had begun to be forgotten, and in ſome meaſure to be repaired. The firſt ſymptoms of revival were diſcerned in Italy. The northern tribes, wich took poſſeſſion of that country, made progreſs in improvement with greater rapidity than the people ſettled in other parts of Europe. An accidental exertion of genius in Italy, contributed more than all the efforts and ingenuity of preceding ages, to improve and to extend navigation. That wonderful property of the magnet was obſerved, by which it communicates to a ſlender needle or rod of iron, ſuch virtue, as to point to towards the poles of the earth. The uſe which might be made of this, in the direction of navigation, was immediately perceived. That moſt valuable, though now familiar inſtrument, *the mariner's compaſs*, was conſtructed. By its means, navigators found, that all ſeaſons, and in every place, they could diſcover the north and ſouth with ſo much eaſe and accuracy, that it became to longer neceſſary to depend merely on the light of the ſtars, and the obſervation of the ſea-coaſt. They gradually abandoned their ancient timid and lingering courſe along the ſhore. They ventured boldly into the ocean, and, relying on this new guide, could ſteer in the darkeſt night, and under the moſt cloudy ſky, with a ſecurity and preciſion hitherto unknown. The compaſs may be ſaid to have opened to man the dominions of the ſea, and to have put him in full poſſeſſion of every part of the earth, by enabling him to viſit almoſt every part of it. Flavio Gioia, a citizen of Amalfi, a town of conſiderable trade in the kingdom of Naples, was the author of this ineſtimable diſcovery, without which the continent of America muſt forever, or at leaſt to a very diſtant period, have remained unknown.* We have already obſerved that this diſcovery took place in the beginning

* From the efforts of Captain Cook, we learn, that America is ſeparated from the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary, only by a narrow ſtrait. It is plain, however, that a correſpondence with Europe, by ſuch a route, muſt have been almoſt entirely impracticable.

of the fourteenth century. It hath been, alas! too often the fate of thoſe illuſtrious benefactors of mankind, who have inriched ſcience, and improved the arts by their inventions, to derive more reputation than benefit from the ſucceſs of their labours But the lot of Gioia has been ſtill more cruel. By the inattention of contemporary hiſtorians, he has been defrauded even of the fame to which he had ſo juſt a title. We receive from them no information with reſpect to his profeſſion, his character, the preciſe time when he made this important diſcovery, or the accidents and enquires which led to it. Though this event has produced greater effects than any other recorded in the annals of the human race, its hiſtory has been tranſmitted to us without any of thoſe circumſtances, which can gratify the curioſity, that it naturally awakens. Many cauſes combined to prevent this beneficial invention from producing its full effect, in a ſhort time. Men relinquiſh ancient habits with timidity and reluctance. The commercial jealouſy of the Italians alſo, in all probability laboured, to conceal from other nations, the happy invention of their countryman. The art of ſteering by the compaſs, with ſuch ſkill and accuracy, as to inſpire a full confidence in its direction, was to be acquired by degrees. Sailors, unaccuſtomed to quit ſight of land, durſt not launch out at once and commit themſelvs to unknown ſeas. Accordingly, almoſt half a century elapſed from the diſcovery of the compaſs, before navigators ventured into any ſeas which they had not formerly been accuſtomed to frequent.

The firſt remarkable conſequence of this invention, appears to have been the diſcovery of Canary, or Fortunate iſlands, by the Spaniards. It is ſaid that theſe were not unknown to the ancients; and Plutarch perhaps intended to allude to them, when he mentions a ſcheme, which had once been thought of by Sertorius, of quitting his conteſt for independent authority in Spain, and ſailing away to certain iſlands in the ocean, of whoſe climate, the biographer gives a flattering deſcription. Whatever truth might be in this report, it is certain, that theſe iſlands had been concealed from the reſt of the world for many ages; when, about the middle of the fourteenth century, they were diſcovered by the Spaniards.

The firſt conſiderable efforts towards the improvement of navigation, were made by the Portugueſe. Various circumſtances prompted their activity in this new direction, and enabled them to accompliſh undertakings, apparently ſuperior to the natural force of their monarchy. The kings of Portugal, after having driven the Moors out of their dominions, had the compleat command of the national force; ann could employ it, without dread of interruption from any domeſtic enemy. By the perpetual hoſtilities carried on for a long periot againſt the Mahometans, the martial and adventrous ſpirit that diſtinguiſhed the European nations, during the middle ages, was improved and heightened among the Portugueſe. The ſituation of the country, bounded on every ſide by the dominions of a more powerful neighbour, did not afford free ſcope to the activity of the Portugueſe by land, as the ſtrength of their monarchy was far inferior to that of Caſtile. But Portugal was a maritime ſtate, in which there were many commodious harbours; the people had begun to make ſome progreſs in the knowledge and practice of navigation; and the ſea was open to them, preſenting the only field of enterpriſe in which they could diſtinguiſh themſelves.

Such was the ſtate of Portugal, when John the firſt, about the year 1412, appointed few veſſels to ſail along the weſtern coaſt of Africa, bounded by the Atlantic ocean, and to diſcover the unknown countries ſituated then. Through Africa lay ſo near to Portugal, the Portugueſe had never ſailed beyond cape *Non*. The veſſels ſent upon the diſcovery, doubled that forminable cape, which had terminated the progeſs of former navigators, and proceeded a hundred and ſixty miles beyond it, to cape Bajador. The commanders were ſatisfied at this diſcovery, and

returned to Liſbon. But, to render undertakings of this kind ultimately ſucceſsful, it was neceſſary that they ſhould be conducted by a perſon who poſſeſſed abilities, capable of diſcerning what was attainable, who enjoyed leiſure to form a regular ſyſtem for proſecuting diſcovery, and who was animated with an ardour that would perſevere in ſpite of obſtacles and repulſes. Theſe qualities were united in Henry, duke of Viſio, the fourth ſon of John the firſt. He cultivated the arts and ſciences, which were then almoſt wholly unknown and deſpiſed by perſons of his rank. He applied with peculiar fondneſs, to the ſtudy of geography, and acquired ſuch knowledge of the habitable globe, as enabled him to diſcover the great probability of finding new and opulent countries, by ſailing along the coaſt of Africa. That he might purſue his ſcheme without interruption, he retired from court, and fixed his reſidence at Sagres, near cape St. Vincent, where the proſpect of the Atlantic ocean invited his thoughts continually towards his favourite project. His firſt effort was inconſiderable. He fitted out a ſingle ſhip, and inſtructed the commanders to double cape Bajador, and thence to ſteer towards the ſouth. They held their courſe along the ſhore, but a ſudden ſquall of wind aroſe, drove them out to ſea, and when they expected every moment to periſh, landed them on an unknown iſland, which they named *Porto Santo*. Next year, Henry ſent out three ſhips to take poſſeſſion of this iſland. Madeira, which lay near to the former, was ſoon after diſcovered. A colony of Portugueſe were ſent out to ſettle theſe new diſcoveries. Slips of the vine from Cyprus, and plants of the ſugar-cane from Sicily, were introduced. Theſe throve ſo proſperouſly, in this part of the world, that the ſugar and wine of Madeira, quickly became of conſequence in the commerce of Portugal.

By voyages to Madeira, the Portugueſe were gradually habituated to a bolder navigation, and inſtead of creeping along the coaſt, ventured into the open ſea. Cape Bajador, which for upwards of twenty years, had been the boundary of Portugueſe efforts, was at laſt doubled. A new ſphere of navigation was opened. The vaſt continent of Africa was diſcovered, waſhed by the Atlantic ocean, and ſtretching towards the ſouth. The Portugueſe advanced within the tropics, and in a few years, they diſcovered the river Senegal, and all the coaſt extending from cape Blanco, to cape de Verd.

When they began to enter the torrid zone, the idea which prevailed among the ancients, that the heat was ſo exceſſive as to render it uninhabitable, deterred them, for ſome time, from proceeding. Their own firſt obſervations confirmed this opinion. When the advanced to the ſouth of the river Senegal, the human form put on a new appearance. They beheld men with ſkins black as ebony, with ſhort curled hair, flat noſes, thick lips, and all the peculiar features which are now known to diſtinguiſh the race of negroes.

The fame of the Portugueſe voyages ſpread over Europe. Adventurers, from every quarter, crouded to prince Henry, and ſolicited employment in his ſervice. Many Genoeſe and Venetians, in particular, entered aboard the Portugueſe ſhips, and acquired a more perfect knowledge of their profeſſion in that new ſchool of navigation. In emulation of theſe foreigners, the Portugueſe made great exertions of their own talents. The cape de Verd Iſlands, and ſoon after the Azores, were diſcovered. The former lie above three hundred miles from the African coaſt, and the latter nine hundred miles from any continent. Prince Henry died in the year one thouſand four hundred and ſixty three. During his life the Portugueſe did not advance towards the ſouth, within five degrees of the equinoctial line; and after their continual exertions for half a century, hardly fifteen hundred miles of the coaſt of Africa were diſcovered.

At the death of Prince Henry, Alphonſe poſſeſſed the throne of Portugal. He committed the care of diſcoveries to a merchant in Liſbon, to whom he granted an

excluſive right of commerce with all the countries of which prince Henry had taken poſſeſſion. As ever happens, under the reſtraint and oppreſſion of monopoly, the ſpirit of diſcovery languiſhed. Some progreſs, however, was made. The Portugueſe ventured, at length, to croſs the line, and, to their aſtoniſhment, found that region of the torrid zone, which was ſuppoſed to be ſcorched with intolerable heat, not only habitable, but populous and fertile.

John the ſecond, in 1481, ſucceeded Alphonſo. While the Portugueſe had proceeded along the coaſt of Africa, from cape Non, to the river Senegal, they found that extenſive tract to be ſandy, barren, and thinly inhabited, by a wretched people profeſſing the Mahometan religion, and ſubject to the empire of Morocco. But to the ſouth of the river, the power and religion of the Mahometans were unknown. The country was divided into ſmall independent principalities; the population was conſiderable, the ſoil fertile, and the Portugueſe ſoon diſcovered that it produced ivory, rich gums, gold, and other valuable commodities. By the acquiſition of theſe, commerce was enlarged, and became more adventurous. John promoted this ſpirit. He declared himſelf the patron of every attempt towards diſcovery. A powerful fleet was fitted out, which, after discovering the kingdoms of Benin and Congo, advanced above fifteen hundred miles beyond the line; and the Portugueſe, for the firſt time, beheld a new heaven, and obſerved the ſtars of another hemiſphere. John built forts on the coaſt of Guinea. He ſent out colonies to ſettle there. He eſtabliſhed a commercial intercourſe with the more powerful kingdoms. According to the uniform and deteſtable policy of Europeans, he endeavoured to render ſuch as were feeble or divided, tributary to his crown. By a regular and vigorous ſyſtem of policy, the Portugueſe power and commerce in Africa were eſtabliſhed upon a ſolid foundation.

By their conſtant intercourſe with the natives of that continent, the ſubjects of John gradually acquired ſome knowledge of thoſe parts of Africa, which they had not viſited. They had detected the error of the ancients concerning the nature of the torrid zone. They found as they proceeded ſouthwards, that the continent of Africa contracted itſelf, and inclined towards the eaſt. This induced them to give credit to the account of the ancient Phœnician voyages round Africa, and led them to hope, that, by following the ſame route, they might arrive at the Eaſt Indies, and engroſs that commerce which has been the ſource of wealth and power to every nation poſſeſſed of it. The king entered with ardour into theſe ſentiments, and concerted meaſures for this dangerous and important voyage.

At this criſis, accounts were tranſmitted from Africa, that various nations along the coaſt, had mentioned a powerful kingdom ſituated on their continent, at a great diſtance towards the eaſt, and that its king profeſſed the chriſtain religion. John concluded that this muſt be the emperor of Abyſſinia, and reſolved, if poſſible, to open ſome intercourſe with his court. He ſelected Pedro de Covillam, and Alphonſo de Payva, who were perfect maſters of the Arabic language, and ſent them into the eaſt, in ſearch of the reſidence of this unknown monarch, and to make him proffers of friendſhip. The ambaſſadors were directed to obtain whatever intelligence the nations, whom they viſited could ſupply, with reſpect to the trade of India, and the courſe of navigation to that continent.

In the mean time, the voyage of diſcovery was committed to Bartholomew Diaz, a navigator, whoſe ſagacity, experience, and fortitude, rendered him equal to the undertaking. He ſtretched boldly toward the ſouth, and proceeding beyond the utmoſt limits to which his countrymen had hitherto advanced, diſcovered about a thouſand miles of new country. Neither the frequent mutinies of his men, nor the calamities of famine, nor a ſucceſſion of violent tempeſts, could deter him from his purpoſe. At laſt, he deſcried that lofty promontory, which bounds Africa to the ſouth, and is

known by the name of the cape of Good-Hope. But to descry it was all that he had in his power to accomplish. The violence of the winds, the shattered condition of his ships, and the turbulent spirit of his sailors, compelled him to return, after a voyage of sixteen months, in which he discovered a far greater extent of country, than any former navigator.

Those sanguine expectations, excited by the success of Diaz, were confirmed by the intelligence which John received over land from his Abyssinian ambassadors. Covillam and Payva had repaired to Grand Cairo. From that city, they travelled with a caravan of Egyptian merchants, and embarking on the Red Sea, arrived at Aden in Arabia. Payva went directly for Abyssinia. Covillam embarked for the East-Indies. He visited Calecut, Goa, and other cities on the Malabar coast, returned to the east side of Africa, and thence to Cairo, which Payva and he had fixed upon as their place of rendezvous. Payva had been murdered in Abyssinia, but Covillam found at Cairo, two Portuguese Jews, whom John had dispatched after them, to communicate new instructions. By one of these Jews, Covillam transmitted to Portugal a journal of his travels by sea and land, his remarks upon the trade of India, and exact maps of the coast on which he had touched. His conclusion was, that by sailing round Africa, a passage might be found to the East-Indies.

The opinion of Covillam, supported by the recent discoveries of Diaz, left hardly any shadow of doubt with regard to the possibility of sailing from Europe to India. But the vast length of the voyage, and the furious storms which Diaz had encountered near the cape of Good Hope, alarmed the Portuguese. The zeal and authority of the monarch dispelled, by degrees, the fears of his subjects, or made it necessary to conceal them. While he was adopting every precaution that wisdom or experience could suggest, to insure the success of this expedition, intelligence arrived in Europe, of the discovery of America. Nor was it until five years after that event, in the year 1497, that the Portuguese were so fortunate as to sail beyond the cape, which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived the grand project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his schemes successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of almost any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he at length succeeded through the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed on to patronise him, by the representations of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematical knowledge. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of success in executing the plan which he proposed. Perez, therefore, so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she entered into the scheme, and even generously offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the requisite sum, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with three ships, upon one of the most adven-

turous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with; and his sailors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprise, that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and he soon discovered it to be a new world. Of this the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

The discovery of America, and that of a passage to the East-Indies by the cape of Good-Hope, are among the greatest and most important events in the history of mankind. Their consequences have already been very great; but in the short period of between two and three centuries, which have elapsed since these discoveries were made, it is impossible that the whole extent of their consequences can have been seen. What benefit, or what misfortunes to mankind may hereafter result from these events, no human wisdom can foresee. By uniting, in some measure, the most distant parts of the world, by enabling them to relieve the wants, to increase the enjoyments, and to encourage the industry of each other, their general tendency would seem to be beneficial. To the natives, however, both of the East and West-Indies, all the commercial advantages which can have resulted from those events, have been sunk and lost in the dreadful misfortunes which they have occasioned. These misfortunes seem to have arisen rather from accident and the rapacity of the discoverers, than from any thing in the nature of these events themselves. At the particular time when these discoveries were made, the superiority of force happened to be so great on the side of the Europeans, that they were enabled to commit with impunity every sort of injustice in those countries. Hereafter perhaps the natives of those countries may grow stronger, or the natives of Europe may grow weaker, and the inhabitants of all the different quarters of the world may arrive at that equality of courage and force, which, by inspiring mutual fear, can alone overawe the injustice of independent nations into some sort of respect for the rights of each other. But nothing seems more likely to establish this equality of force, than that mutual communication of knowledge, and of all sorts of improvements, which an extensive commerce carries along with it.

In the mean time, one of the principal effects of these discoveries has been, to raise the mercantile system to a degree of importance, which it could not otherwise have attained. It is the object of that system to enrich a nation rather by trade and manufactures, than by the improvement of land, rather by the industry of towns and cities, than by the country. And in consequence of those discoveries, the commercial towns of Europe, instead of being the manufacturers and carriers for but a very small part of the world, have now become the manufacturers for the numerous and thriving cultivators of America; and the carriers, and, in some degree, the manufacturers, for almost all the different nations of Asia, Africa, and America. Two new worlds have been opened to their industry, each of them much greater and more extensive than the old one; and these markets are augmenting every day.

The countries which possess the colonies of America, and which trade directly to the East-Indies, enjoy, indeed, the whole show and splendor of this great commerce. Yet other countries, notwithstanding the invidious restraints, by which it is intended to exclude them, often enjoy a greater share of the real advantage of it. The colonies of Spain and Portugal, for example, give more real encouragement to the industry of other countries than to that of the parent states.

Even the regulations by which each nation endeavours to secure to itself the exclusive trade of its own colonies, are frequently more hurtful to the countries in favour

of which they are eſtabliſhed, than to thoſe againſt which they are directed. This fact has been fully demonſtrated by Dr. Smith, in his inquiry into the wealth of nations. After all the unjuſt attempts, therefore, of every country in Europe, to engroſs to itſelf the whole advantage of the trade of its own colonies, no country has yet been able to engroſs to itſelf any thing, but the expenſe of ſupporting in time of peace, and of defending in time of war, the oppreſſive authority, which it aſſumes over them. The inconveniences reſulting from the poſſeſſion of its colonies, every country has, indeed, very completely engroſſed to itſelf. The advantages reſulting from their trade, it is obliged to ſhare with many other countries.

At the firſt ſight, indeed, the monopoly of the great commerce of America, ſeems naturally to be an acquiſition of the higheſt value. To the undiſcerning eye of giddy ambition, it preſents itſelf amidſt the confuſed ſcrambles of politics; as a very dazzling object to fight for. The dazzling ſplendor of the object, that is, the immenſe greatneſs of the commerce, is the very quality, which renders the monopoly of it hurtful.

In the trade to America, every nation endeavours to engroſs, as much as poſſible, the whole market of its own colonies, by entirely excluding all other nations from any direct trade with them. During the greater part of the ſixteenth century, the Portugueſe endeavoured to manage the trade to the Eaſt-Indies in the ſame manner, by claiming the ſole right of ſailing in the Indian ſeas, on account of the merit of having firſt found out the road to them. The Dutch exclude all other nations from any direct trade to their ſpice iſlands. Monopolies of this kind are evidently eſtabliſhed againſt all other European nations, who are thereby not only excluded from a trade, into which it might be convenient for them to turn ſome part of their ſtock, but are obliged to buy the goods which that trade deals in, ſomewhat dearer, than if they could import them directly from the countries which produce them.

Though the Europeans poſſeſs many conſiderable ſettlements both upon the coaſt of Africa and in the Eaſt-Indies, they have not yet eſtabliſhed in either of theſe countries, ſuch numerous and thriving colonies, as thoſe in the iſlands and upon the continent of America. Africa, however, as well as ſeveral of the countries comprehended under the general name of the Eaſt-Indies, are inhabited by barbarous nations. But thoſe nations, at the time of their diſcovery, were, by no means ſo weak and defenceleſs as the Americans; and, in proportion to the natural fertility of the countries, which they inhabited, they were beſides much more populous. The moſt barbarous nations either of Africa, or of the Eaſt-Indies, were ſhepherds; even the Hottentots were ſo. But the nations of every part of America, except Mexico and Peru, were only hunters; and the difference is very great between the number of ſhepherds and that of hunters, whom the ſame extent of equally fertile territory can maintain. In Africa and the Eaſt-Indies, therefore, it was more difficult to diſplace the natives, and to extend the European plantations over the greater part of the lands of the original inhabitants. The genius of excluſive companies, beſides, is unfavourable to the growth of new colonies, and has probably been one principal cauſe of the little progreſs which they have made in the Eaſt-Indies. The Portugueſe carried on the trade both of Africa and the Eaſt-Indies, without any excluſive companies, and their ſettlements at Congo, Angola, and Benguela on the coaſt of Africa, and at Goe in the Eaſt-Indies, bear ſome faint reſemblance to the colonies of America. The Dutch ſettlements at the cape of Good-Hope, and at Batavia, are at preſent the moſt conſiderable colonies which the Europeans have eſtabliſhed, either in Africa, or the Eaſt-Indies.

Theſe general remarks will aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the advantages derived to Europe by the diſcovery of the new world, and of ſome of the principal conſequences of that memorable event.

We ſhall cloſe this chapter with ſome remarks on the progreſs of ſociety and learning in Europe, from the cloſe of the fifteenth century to the preſent time.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs, into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Learning awoke from her ſlumber of near twelve centuries, and the inhabitants of Europe became another people. The art of printing, which, with ſuch rapidity, ſpreads from country to country the wiſdom and follies of mankind, was invented: artillery and engineering were brought to perfection, and totally changed the operations of war. The maritime nations fitted out fleets for making diſcoveries, and the whole world became connected by commerce. The human mind was, in ſome degree, releaſed from the ſhackles of ſuperſtition, which had long ſilenced reaſon, and prevented the reaſoning faculty from exerting its powers. The arts and ſciences began to be more generally cultivated; literature was eſteemed; commerce was every day improved, and riches flowed into Europe from every quarter. New principles of action, and new ſyſtems of conduct, were introduced at this æra of mental improvement; but the powers of the human mind are unfolded only by ſlow degrees. Many prejudices were to be removed, many abuſes corrected, and many difficulties ſurmounted, before the ſciences could appear in their genuine luſtre; for the principles of the arts and ſciences partly forgotten. A. D. 1440.

The firſt ſtudies that engaged mankind at the revival of learning, were languages and hiſtory. The human mind, releaſed from barbariſm, grew eager to collect ideas; but was then incapable of acquiring them in a regular order. Memory, therefore, was the firſt faculty cultivated; becauſe the moſt eaſily ſatisfied, and the knowledge it procures, the moſt eaſily attained. Hence proceeded that croud of ſcholars, ſo deeply ſkilled in the learned languages, and ſo negligent of their own.

This fondneſs for the ancient, and neglect of the modern languages, did not long continue ſo univerſally prevalent. The learned were ſoon convinced, that beautiful thoughts loſt nothing by being clothed in a living language; and hence they endeavoured to expreſs in their own tongues, what the ancients had delivered in theirs. Thus the imagination of the moderns was gradually kindled up by that of the ancients; and produced reſpectable performances in the laſt and preſent centuries, in eloquence, hiſtory, and poetry.

The arts of elegance are ſo cloſely connected with polite learning, that a genius for cultivating the one, leads to the improvement of the other. The various works of the ancients were no ſooner carefully examined, than judicious artiſts were ſtruck with thoſe maſter-pieces of antiquity, which had eſcaped the fury of Gothic barbarity. Raphael, and Michael Angelo, brought their art to a degree of perfection, which has not ſince been exceeded.

The progreſs of philoſophy was much ſlower than that of the polite arts. Moſt of the philoſophical works of the ancients were loſt; and the few that remained, could give but very uncertain and confuſed glimmerings of ſo diffuſive a ſubject. The face of nature is the primary book of philoſophers, and the moderns were obliged to ſtudy it. The ancients could not ſave them the labour. But philoſophy had other difficulties that retarded its progreſs; ignorance, a blind admiration for antiquity, and ſuperſtitious bigotry, united in obſcuring the light of reaſon, and almoſt ſtifled the genuine rays of ſcience in their dawn.

Whilſt ignorance or malevolent enemies therefore declared open war with ſcience, philoſophy retreated under the ſhelter of ſome extraordinary men; who, without entertaining the dangerous, but illuſtrious, ambition of unveiling the eyes of their cotemporaries, prepared, in ſhade and ſilence, that light, which afterwards, by inſenſible degrees, illuminated the world

The fifteenth and ſixteenth centuries were diſtinguiſhed for many important dis-

coveries. It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we shall give some account in the history of each particular state, in the following work. The great events which happened then, have not hitherto exhausted their force. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations.

It seems extremely probable, that the jealousy of so many rival powers will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no less probable, that, in contending for it, they must weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending even their just possessions. The partial conquests which they may make, are extremely illusive; instead of promoting, they rather oppose their designs. The external conquest of one nation, generally excite alarms in others, and are almost always less solid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occasion to, by which the nation, which has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to great extremities in the end. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the best established in the science of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The states of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Persian invasions, exhibit the same truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the most inconsiderable of these little societies, but, in its turn, imbibed the frenzy of conquest, and in its turn, too, was reduced by this frenzy, to the utmost misery and distress.*

PART III.

Of the ORIGIN and PROGRESS of RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever roused the attention of mankind; but they, being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the sublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to those nations, whose religion had no other foundation than the natural feelings, and more frequently the irregular passions of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven respecting this important object. In deducing the history of religion, therefore, we must make the same distinction which we have hitherto observed, in tracing the progress of arts, sciences, and of civilization among mankind. We must separate what is human from what is divine, what originated in particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unassisted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this distinction, we find, that, in the first ages of the world, the religion of the eastern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine source, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, these began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obscured, and among those tribes which separated at the greatest distance, and in the smallest numbers, from the more improved societies of men, it was altogether obliterated.

* The reader who would see this subject fully illustrated, may look at the oration of Isocrates on the peace; a finished model of ancient eloquence; and which contains a fund of political knowledge.

In this situation, a particular people were selected by God himself, to be the depositaries of his law and worship; but the rest of mankind formed hypotheses upon these subjects, which were more or less perfect, according to an infinity of circumstances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The most common religion of iniquity, that which prevailed the longest, and extended the widest, was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of Gods. The rage of system, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occasioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this species of worship. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the subject; and what is said upon it in general, must always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems neither to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the Divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built solely upon sentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who had led them forth to the combat, who had presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive; but the power of imagination over the senses, is what all men have, in some degree, experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange, that the images of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and whose fears were confined to their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic disposition of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection would be sufficient to convince them, that as their own heroes existed after death, it might likewise be the case with those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established, the propitious, and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impressions of tradition, and the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names, and confound the characters, of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. In general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances, discovered the preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substance with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia: the had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notion of gods and religion, with those that are interspersed in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first, even in Greece, that publicly announced the existence of one creator and governor of the universe. It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements.

If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greateſt part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs; and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in friendſhip, without interfering with one another.

The introduction of chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he required of men produced a total alteration in their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject; it is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrines and precepts. It required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed. Conſtantine firſt eſtabliſhed chriſtianity as the religion of the empire. The barbarous nations copied the example of their maſters, the Romans. Chriſtianity was embraced by the Burgundians in Gaul, the Suevi in Spain, the Vandals in Africa, the Oſtrogoths in Pannonia, and the various bands of mercenaries, who raiſed Odoacer to the throne of Italy. The Franks and the Saxons perſevered for ſome time, in the errors of paganiſm; but the Franks obtained the monarchy of Gaul, by their ſubmiſſion to the example of Clovis; and the Saxon conquerors of Britain, were reclaimed from their ſavage ſuperſtition by the miſſionaries of Rome. Theſe barbarian proſelytes diſplayed an ardent and ſucceſsful zeal in the propagation of the faith. The Merovingian kings, and their ſucceſſors, Charlemagne and the Othos, extended, by their laws and victories, the dominion of the croſs. England produced the apoſtle of Germany; and the evangelic light was gradually diffuſed from the neighbourhood of the Elbe, the Viſtula, and the Baltic.

Chriſtianity, which opened the gates of heaven to the barbarians, introduced an important change in their moral and political condition. They received, at the ſame time, the uſe of letters, ſo eſſential to a religion whoſe doctrines are contained in a ſacred book; and while they ſtudied the divine truth, their minds were inſenſibly enlarged by the diſtant view of hiſtory, of nature, of the arts, and of ſociety. The verſion of the ſcriptures into their native tongue, which had facilitated their converſion, muſt excite, among their clergy, ſome curioſity to read the original text, to underſtand the ſacred liturgy of the church, and to examine, in the writings of the fathers, the chain of eccleſiaſtical tradition. Theſe ſpiritual gifts were preſerved in the Greek and Latin languages, which concealed the ineſtimable monuments of ancient learning. The celebrated productions of Virgil, Cicero, and Livy, which were acceſſable to the chriſtian barbarians, maintained a ſilent intercourſe between the reign of Auguſtus, and the times of Clovis and Charlemagne. The emulation of mankind was encouraged by the remembrance of a more perfect ſtate; and the flame of ſcience was ſecretly kept alive, to warm and enlighten the mature age of the weſtern world. In the moſt corrupt ſtate of chriſtianity, the barbarians might learn juſtice from the *law*, and mercy from the *goſpel*, and if the knowledge of their duty was inſufficient to guide their actions, or to regulate their paſſions, they were ſometimes reſtrained by conſcience, and frequently puniſhed by remorſe. But the direct authority of religion was leſs effectual, than the holy communion which united them with their chriſtian bretheren in ſpiritual friendſhip. The influence of theſe ſentiments contributed to ſecure their fidelity in the ſervice, or the alliance, of the Romans, to alleviate the horrors of war, to moderate the inſolence of conqueſt, and to preſerve, in the downfall of the empire, a permanent reſpect for the name and inſtitutions of Rome. In the days of Paganism, the prieſts of Gaul and Germany reigned over the people, and controlled the juris-

diction of the magiſtrates; and the zealous proſelytes transferred an equal, or more ample meaſure of devout obedience, to the pontiffs of the chriſtian faith. The ſacred character of the biſhops was ſupported by their temporal poſſeſſions; they obtained an honourable ſeat in the legiſlative aſſemblies of ſoldiers and freemen; and it was their intereſt, as well as their duty, to mollify, by peaceable counſels, the fierce ſpirit of the barbarians. The perpetual correſpondence of the Latin clergy, the frequent pilgrimages to Rome and Jeruſalem, and the growing authority of the popes, cemented the union of the chriſtian republic; and gradually produced the ſimilar manners, and common juriſprudence, which have diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of mankind, the independent, and even hoſtile, nations of modern Europe.

It is foreign from our deſign, to trace the progreſs of the hiſtory of the church, during the middle ages; bnt we ſhall conclude by mentioning ſome of the cauſes, which produced the reformation of religion, in the ſixteenth century.

In the ancient ſtate of Europe, before the eſtabliſhment of arts and manufactures, which that of the clergy gave them the ſame ſort of influence oveq the common people which that of the great barons gave them over their reſpective vaſſals, tenants, and retainers. In the great landed eſtates, which the miſtaken piety both of princes and private perſons had beſtowed upon the church, juriſdictions were eſtabliſhed of the ſame kind with thoſe of the great barons, and for the ſame reaſon. In thoſe great landed eſtates, the clergy or their bailiffs, could eaſily keep the peace without the ſupport or aſſiſtance either of the king or of any other perſon; and neither the king nor any other perſon, could keep the peace there, without the ſupport of the clergy. The juriſdictions of the clergy, therefore, in their particular baronies or manors, were equally independent, and equally excluſive of the authority of the king's courts, as thoſe of the great temporal lords. The tenants of the clergy were, like thoſe of the great barons, almoſt all tenants at will, entirely dependent upon their immediate lords, and therefore liable to be called out at pleaſure, in order to fight in any quarrel in which the clergy might think proper to engage them. Over and above the rents of thoſe eſtates, the clergy poſſeſſed, in the tythes, a very large portion of the rents of all the other eſtates in every kingdom of Europe. The revenues ariſing from both thoſe ſpecies of rents, were, the greater part of them, paid in kind, in corn, wine, cattle, poultry, &c. The quantity exceeded greatly what the clergy could themſelves conſume; and there were neither arts nor manufactures, for the produce of which they could exchange the ſurplus. The clergy could derive advantage from this immenſe ſurplus, in no other way, than by employing it, as the great barons employed the like ſurplus of their revenues, in the moſt profuſe hoſpitality, and in the moſt extenſive charity. Both the hoſpitality and the charity of the ancient clergy, accordingly, are said to have been very great. They not only maintained almoſt the whole poor of every kingdom, but many knights and gentlemen had frequently no other means of ſubſiſtence, than by travelling about from monaſtery to monaſtery, under pretence of devotion, but in reality to enjoy the hoſpitality of the clergy. The retainers of ſome prelates were often as numerous as thoſe of the greateſt lay-lord; and the retainers of all the clergy, taken together, were perhaps more numerous than thoſe of all the lay-lords. There was more union among the clergy than among the lay-lords. The former were under a regular diſcipline and ſubordination to the papal authority. The latter were under no regular diſcipline or ſubordination, but almoſt always equally jealous of one another, and of the king. Though the tenants and retainers of the clergy, therefore, had both together been leſs numerous than thoſe of the great lay-lords; and their tenants were probably much leſs numerous; yet their union would have rendered them more formidable. The charity of the clergy, too, not only gave them the command of a great temporal force, but increaſed very much the weight of their ſpiritual weapons. Thoſe

virtues procured them the higheſt reſpect and veneration among all the inferior ranks of people, of whom many were conſtantly, and almoſt all occaſionally, fed by them.

The gradual improvements of arts, manufactures, and commerce, the ſame cauſes which deſtroyed the power of the great barons, deſtroyed in the ſame manner, through the greater part of Europe, the whole temporal power of the clergy. In the produce of arts, manufactures, and commerce, the clergy, like the great barons, found ſomething for which they could exchange their rude produce, and thereby diſcovered the means of ſpending their whole revenues upon their own perſons, without giving any great ſhare of them to other people. Their charity became gradually leſs extenſive, their hoſpitallity leſs liberal or leſs profuſe. Their retainers became, conſequently, leſs numerous, and, by degrees, dwindled away altogether. The clergy, too, like the great barons, wiſhed to get a better rent from their landed eſtates in order to ſpend it, in the ſame manner, upon the gratification of their own private vanity and folly. But this increaſe of rent could be got only by granting leaſes to their tenants, who hereby became, in a great meaſure independent of them. The ties of intereſt, which bound the inferior ranks of people to the clergy, were in this manner gradually broken and diſſolved. They were even broken and diſſolved ſooner than thoſe which bound the ſame ranks of people to the great barons; becauſe the benefices of the church being, the greater part of them, much ſmaller than the eſtates of the great barons, the poſſeſſor of each benefice was much ſooner able to ſpend the whole of its revenue upon his own perſon. During the greater part of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the power of the great barons was, through the greater part of Europe, in full vigour. But the temporal power of the clergy, the abſolute command which they had once had over the great body of the people, was very much decayed. The power of the church was, by that time, very nearly reduced, through the great part of Europe, to what aroſe from her ſpiritual authority; and even that ſpiritual authority was much weakened, when it ceaſed to be ſupported by the charity and hoſpitality of the clergy; ſince the inferior ranks of people no longer looked upon that order, as they had done before, as the comforters of their diſtreſs, and the relievers of their indigence. The events, to which this revolution of influence gave riſe, will be unfolded in the hiſtorical department of this work.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, containing according to Zimmermann* only about 2,627,574 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles, is, in many reſpects, that which moſt deſerves our attention. There the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners; and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials, for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The great number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural, unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece: and we have ſeen, that it was there the human mind began to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt much improved. What Greece therefore was, with regard to Europe, Europe is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is neceſſary to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the dominion of barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitutions; ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt, from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchial, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force, and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe *ariſtocracies*, or governments of the nobles, and *democracies*, or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; France, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are,

* See Zimmermann's Political ſurvey of Europe, p. 5, where the reader will find an account of the geographical ſquare miles contained in Europe, as ſtated by ſix of the ableſt modern geographers, viz. Buſching, Kitchin, Templeman, Bergmen, Crome, and Stalist Ucberfich; of their different accounts the average is exactly the number ſtated above.

likewiſe, mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind. The other mixed governments in Europe are compoſed of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, ſeveral ſtates of Italy, &c. all which ſhall be explained in their proper places.

The chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, The Roman catholic; and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century. The church of England forms a third great diviſion of Proteſtants, entirely diſtinct from the two former.

The languages of Europe are derived from the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic

"The greateſt part of Europe being ſituated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its moſt ſouthern provinces being far diſtant from the torrid zone, the ſpecies of organized bodies are much leſs numerous in Europe, than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for inſtance, upon an equal number of ſquare miles, the number of ſpecies of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Aſia as 1 to 2 1-5, to that in America as 1 to 2 1-3, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10: and the number of the vegetable ſpecies in the other three diviſions of the globe, is greatly ſuperior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched the European continent with every ſpecies of minerals; diamonds, and platina perhaps excepted. Gold, the firſt of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other continents. However, as the European nations excel the reſt of mankind not only in the ſkill of making the beſt uſe of their natural productions, but alſo in the art of tranſplanting into their own ſoil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit; Europe upon the whole muſt be allowed to be one of the richeſt parts of the globe."*

It will doubtleſs be agreeable to the inquiſitive mind to have at one view a comparative eſtimate of the different ſtates of Europe, both as to the article of revenue, and that of their land and naval forces: we ſhall therefore add the ſame from reſpectable authority.†

PUBLIC REVENUE *of the* PRINCIPAL STATES *in* EUROPE.

	£. Sterl.	
1. Great Britain ‡	14,500,000	
2. Austria	12,400,000	(112 million florins)
3. France	18,000,000	(Necker, Compte rendu)
4. Spain	5,000,000	Of Old Spain alone.
5. Russia	5,800,000	
6. Turkey	5,000,000	
7. Prussia	3,600,000	
8. Portugal	1,800,000	
9. Sicily	1,400,000	medium
10. Holland	4,000,000	
11. Sweden	1,300,000	
12. Venice	1,000,000	
13. Denmark	1,000,000	
14. Electorate of Saxony	1,100,000	
15. Electorate of Hanover	900,000	
16. Joint elect. of the Palat. and Bavaria	1,100,000	
17. Sardinia	1,000,000	

"A more exact account will be found in the ſpecial tables, the preceding ſtatement in round numbers being intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative ſtate of European finances. It would, however, be very impro-

* Zimmermann, p. 8.

† Ibid. p. 11—15.

‡ The revenue of Britain is now (1793) at least ſeventeen millions.

per to judge of the power of ſtates merely by their finances; becauſe, in ſome countries, the value of money is much higher than in others: thus, for inſtance, the whole Ruſſian army coſts the ſtate leſs than two millions of rubles. Ruſſia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others, have paper money."

LAND FORCES *of the* EUROPEAN STATES *in the year* 1783.

France	300,000		Holland	37,000	
Austria	282,000		Naples and Sicily	30,000	
Russia (450,000 in all) in Europe	290,000		Electorate of Saxony	26,000	
Prussia	224,000		Portugal	20,000	
Turkey (210,000 in all) in Europe only	170,000		Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate	20,000	
Spain	60,000	including militia	Hesse Caſſel	15,000	
Denmark	72,000		Hanover	20,000	
Great Britain	58,000	including militia	Poland	15,000	
Sweden	50,000		Venice	8,000	
Sardinia	40,000		Wurtemburg	6,000	
			The eccleſiaſtical ſtate	5,000	
			Tuſcany	3,000	

"As I have ſtated here the Forces of the principal ſtates only, paſſing over a conſiderable part of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to two millions of men; ſo that ſuppoſing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than one ſeventieth part of the whole population are ſoldiers. The military eſtabliſhment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs ſomewhat from the above ſtatement. France, Auſtria, and Pruſſia have by far the moſt formidable armies: as to Ruſſia, the immenſe extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120, or 130,000 men to act againſt an enemy; and as to the Turkiſh forces, they are at preſent much inferior to any well diſciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population, and the number of ſoldiers, is not unworthy of obſervation. There are in Germany, nearly 500,000 ſoldiers, conſequently one fifty-ſecond part of the whole population are engaged in the military profeſſion: in Italy, on the contrary, even ſuppoſing the ſtanding armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only 1-133 of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions."

NAVAL FORCES.

Number of ſhips of the line, frigates, cutters, ſloops, &c.

1. England	465		8. Ruſſia	63	
2. France	266		9. Sardinia	32	
3. Spain	130		10. Venice	30	
4. Holland	95		11. Sicily	25	
5. Sweden	85		12. Portugal	24	
6. Denmark	60				
7. Turkey	50	commonly reckoned 60	Total	1,325	

"Several of theſe numbers, taken from the naval liſts of 1783, are at preſent reduced; the actual number will be mentioned in the ſpecial tables. This gives, however, ſome idea of the reſpective naval ſtrength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for inſtance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years paſt, and having for that reaſon built but a

ſmall number of ſhips, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increaſe their naval forces very conſiderably in caſe of a war.

"It may, perhaps, be an object of curioſity, to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly diſputed by the Roman catholic and proteſtant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the ſurface of the countries in which the proteſtant religion is eſtabliſhed, to thoſe in which the Roman catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: the number of Roman Catholics is, according to my calculations, drawn up with as much accuracy as ſuch an intricate matter will allow of, about 90,000,000; the number of proteſtants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. I ſhall obſerve, in addition to this account of the European religions, that an inconſiderable number of ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans*.

"The greateſt part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men, ſtrong, bold, active, and ingenious; forced by neceſſity to make the beſt uſe they can of the ſmaller ſhare of vegetable and animal treaſures, which their ſoil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profuſion of ſpontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmoſphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their ſpirit of enterpriſe, and confine the compaſs of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is it likely, to boaſt of a Newton, a Ceſar, or a Frederic.

"Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Appenines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every ſpecies of minerals. It is likewiſe no ſmall convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is interſected by ſeveral ſeas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic ocean.

"The ſeeming natural diſadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perſeverance of the inhabitants, given riſe to numberleſs arts and ſciences, which have been carried to ſuch a degree of perfection, as inſures to Europe a decided ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. Aſia, Africa, and America have immenſe deſerts, ſuch as are no where to be found in Europe; deſerts of many thouſand ſquare miles, and which are partly owing to natural, and inſuperable diſadvantages of ſituation, partly to want of induſtry, which is at once both a cauſe and effect of deſolation. It is almoſt needleſs to mention how far the ſciences of Europe excel thoſe of the other three continents, excepting thoſe parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been tranſplanted. Europe may alſo boaſt of the greateſt number of uſeful inventions and inſtitutions, to preſerve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has at preſent about one hundred and thirty univerſities, and an almoſt infinite number of literary ſocieties or academies of ſciences, arts, and languages. In conſequence of the great progreſs of knowledge, the Europeans enjoy all the conveniences of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has beſtowed greater riches. And ſuch is their ſuperiority of ſkill in aſtronomy and navigation, that having conquered in a great meaſure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans ſeems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itſelf†.

"The ſtate of Europe, conſidered with reſpect to their intrinſic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three claſſes. France, Great-Britain, Auſtria, Pruſſia, and Ruſſia, belong to the firſt claſs. Secondary powers are thoſe

*Zimmermann, p. 16, 17.

†Zimmermann, p. 17,—19,

of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third class comprehends Portugal, Naples, and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the electorate of Saxony, Switzerland, and Venice. For the last three centuries past, the cabinet's of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a constant equilibrium between the different states. France and England endeavoured to preserve the balance of power in the west; Prussia, Austria, and Russia, that in the east, of Europe: Russia has, by its late extraordinary increase of power, gained a great ascendency in the north, after a successful struggle with the rival power of Sweden*."

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 65th degree east longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west by the Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America: being 3000 miles long from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the north cape in Norway, to cape Caya or Metaphar in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief city.	Dis. & bearing from Philad.	Diff. of time from Phil.	Religions.
					Statute miles.	H. M.	
British empire.	England	380	300	London	3720 N. E.	5 1 bef.	Calv. Luths, &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	3540 N. E.	4 48 bef.	Calv. &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	3430 N. E.	4 34 bef	Rom. cath. &c.
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	3750 N. E.	5 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhag.	4250 N. E.	5 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	4410 N. E.	6 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg	4730 N. E.	7 4 bef.	Greek church
	Poland	700	680	Warsaw	4710 N. E.	6 24 bef.	R. cat. Lu. & cal.
	K. Pr. dom.	609	350	Berlin	4330 N. E.	5 49 bef.	Luth. & Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	4610 N. E.	6 5 bef.	R. cat. Lu. & cal.
Netherlands.	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	4280 N. E.	6 4 bef.	Roman Catho.
	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	3950 N. E.	5 18 bef.	Calvinists.
	Flanders	200	200	Brussels	3910 N. E.	5 16 bef.	Roman Catho.
	France	600	500	Paris	3910 N. E.	5 9 bef.	Roman Catho.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	3810 E.	4 43 bef.	Roman Catho.
	Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	3550 E.	4 22 bef.	Roman Catho.
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Coire &c.	4150 E.	5 28 bef.	Cal. & R. cath.
Italy	Several small states	Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantau, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany. Turin, Casal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.					
	Popedom	240	120	Rome	4610 E.	4 8 bef.	Roman Catho.
	Naples	280	120	Naples	4730 E.	6 0 bef.	Roman Catho.
Turkey in Europe.	Hungary	300	200	Buda	4640 N. E.	6 17 bef.	R. cat. & Prot.
	Danubian provinces	600	420	Constantinople.	5500 E.	6 58 bef.	Mahometans, & Greek church.
	Lit. Tartary	380	240	Precop	5620 E.	7 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	5340 E.	6 37 bef.	

* Zimmermann, p. 21, 22.

† This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Russia, for the particulars of which, see Russia.

Excluſive of the Britiſh iſles, before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal iſlands:

	Islands.	Chief towns.	Subject to
In the Northern ocean.	Iceland,	Skalholt,	Denmark.
Baltic sea.	Zealand, Fünen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm, — —	— —	Denmark.
	Gothland, Aland, Rugen, —	— —	Sweden.
	Osel, Dagho, — —	— —	Russia.
	Usedom, Wollin, — —	— —	Prussia.
Mediterranean sea.	Ivica, — — — —	Ivica,	Spain.
	Majorca, — — —	Majorca,	Ditto.
	Minorca, — — —	Port Mahon,	Ditto.
	Corsica, — — — —	Bastia,	France.
	Sardinia, — — —	Cagliari,	King of Sardinia.
	Sicily, — — —	Palermo.	King of two Sicilies.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice.	Lusiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia, — —	— —	Venice.
Archipelago, and Levant seas.	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being of ancient and modern Greece.	— —	Turkey.

DENMARK.

WE ſhall, according to our plan, begin this account of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions with the moſt northerly ſituations, and divide them into four parts: 1ſt, Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, Iceland, and the iſlands in the Atlantic ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimenſions of theſe countries may be ſeen in the following table.

Denmark.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	
Denmark Proper	North Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.	
	South Jutland, or Sleswic,	2,115	70	63	Sleswic.	
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic sea.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN,	N. Lat. 55—41 / E. Long. 12—50
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odensee.	
	Falster and Langland,	220	27	12	Nikoping. / Naxkaw.	
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.	
	Alsen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.	
	Mona,	29	14	5	Stege.	
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rostcomby.	
In the North seas,	Iceland island,	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.	
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.	
Danish	Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Warkhuys.	
Westphalia	Oldenburg,	1,260	62	32	Oldenburg.	
Lower Saxony,	Stormar,	1,000	52	32	Gluckstadt.	
	Danish Holstein.					
	Total	163,041				

In the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe they are known but very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND.

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here; and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have formed, within the laſt thirty years, ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The aurora borealis, enables them to purſue the chace during the long winter's night that reigns in thoſe gloomy regions; and they take a great number of ſea-lions which ſerve them for food. There is a whale-fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and Britiſh veſſels, on the coaſt, which contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dress of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they differ but little, after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low in ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height; and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour; but they have ſeldom any beards; becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can uſe their hands with ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but are good humoured, friendly and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them, and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a great copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh. The men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with ſkins. The men hunt and fiſh; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make clothes, ſhoes, and boots, out of them;

ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and tailors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenters work: They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays, that in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the long continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſt; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

Curiosities.) The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had thirteen ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords. His tongue is about eighteen feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are two hundred and fifty pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is usually between ſixty and eighty feet long; very thick about the head, but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart,) and the animal, finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent friction of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying, he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniencies on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. ſterling a barrel. The Dutch and Engliſh by their proſecution of this fiſhery, have ſtarved to death a great part of the original inhabitants of Greenland.

ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which receives its name from the great maſſes of ice that are ſeen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. from London. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and ſixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 ſquare miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſing and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourg, at eight miles diſtance from the rocks des Oiſeaux, which afterwards was found to be a new iſland. The fact is authentic, but its dimenſions and ſituation

are not well aſcertained. The information brought by the laſt ſhip from thence, was, that the iſland was ſtill encreaſing, and that great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there, inhabitants who were Chriſtians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is ſaid, that the Norwegians alſo found among them Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the iſland, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became ſubject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations; but that mode has been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It was much more populous in former times; but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands, from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here: for, in the years 1707 and 1708, that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders, in general, are middle-ſized, and well made, though not very ſtrong. They are an honeſt, well-intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing, and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts, the men employ their time in fiſhing both Winter and Summer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection: and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns, when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental; but it is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the Wadmal, and always wear black: thoſe who are in better circumſtances, wear broad cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood; and in others, they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed between the lava. Their

roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three ſtones; and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in a year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland, is the Lutheran. The churches on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland) and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelanders underſtand their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed in Iceland; the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted; as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandic biſhop, Iſleif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and ſoon after were founded four other ſchools, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. And from the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had ſome knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Sir Joſeph Banks preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandic manuſcripts to the Britiſh muſeum. That gentlemen viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by dr. Solander, dr. Van Troil, and dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland, than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by rote; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who, beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhing a printing-preſs in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there, was the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this iſland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more frequent than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country almoſt deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal conſequences. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Of theſe burning mountains, Heckla is the beſt known, eſpecially to foreigners. This mountain is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5,000 feet higher than the ſea. It has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland, to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. The laſt eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded alſo from it in December, 1771, and in September, 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

Among the curioſities in Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water-ſprings with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carliſbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and ſeveral others found in Italy, are conſidered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the laſt-mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil: nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All the water-works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expenſe, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt amongſt thoſe in France, caſt up a thin column, eighty feet into the air: while ſome ſprings in Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of unequal degrees of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, it ſpouts boiling water with a great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet dr. Van Troil does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Farenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes heard at the time, excite great terror among the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of very wholeſome milk.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland, is called Geyſer. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed, that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown much higher at ſome times than at others: when dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe

pillars to have been piled one upon another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſix feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but, in others, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field-ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often ſeen fifty or more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many years undiſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood drifted along between them is often ſo much chafed, and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire; which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each others' wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them; and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every one that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

No wood grows ſucceſsfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the iſland.

Trade.] The commerce of this iſland is monopolized by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſts is tolerably good for paſture; and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train oil, coarſe woollen-cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

Strength and revenue.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns.

THE FARO or FERRO ISLANDS,

So called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another, are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. longitude from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in

length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000, add little to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and north, by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt, it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its poſition towards the ſea. At Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in, about the middle of October, and continues with intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all the time frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. In the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about five. In ſummer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and half; owing to the reflexion of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. This is moſt probably a fiction. Sudden thaws and ſnow-falls have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Hardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is eſteemed the higheſt mountain in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and which are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expenſe of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and

when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in theſe mountains are more wonderful, perhaps, than thoſe in any other part of the world. One of them, called Dolſten, was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts. The timber growing here is fir and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed, birch, beech, oak, alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comel or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, ebony, (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives from foreign nations for maſts, beams, planks, and boards, are very conſiderable; the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which afford them not only the convenience of floating down their timber, but of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granites, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtone. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. The Daniſh king is now working to great advantage a ſilver mine at Koningſberg; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen in the royal muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Roraas is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, coal, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and lakes of this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for veſſels of a conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs: which, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family-ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathoms in depth; and its ſite was inſtantly filled with water, and formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which fourteen people and two hundred head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

QUADRUPEDS, FOWLS AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark, are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the fox, the lynx, the glutton, the leming, the ermin, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and, in winter, ſocial. Its fleſh taſtes like veniſon. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious; they are reported to be remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy

even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous: it is of the cat kind, and has claws like the tyger; it digs under ground, and often undermines ſheep-folds, where it makes dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of. The glutton, otherwiſe called the erven, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth: his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve his ſkin unhurt: he is bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburdens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been ſaid to have eaten ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall mention the beavers, in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is that of a large duck, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. Many kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pidgeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eyes reſemble thoſe of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that it has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea or fiſh eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their body, he is dragged into the water, and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aerial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and the induſtry of the natives is peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race. The birdmen, or climbers, are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are ſometimes parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all kinds of fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe. Stock-fiſh are innumerable, and dried upon the rocks without ſalting. Some fiſh in thoſe ſeas have their peculiarities. The haac-moren is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train oil. The tuella-flynder is an exceſſively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over board, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned) in following the herring ſhoals. The large whales reſemble the cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly; they ſpout out the water which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an

incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, as to beat himſelf to death upon the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable ſhoals come from under the ice at the north pole, and about the latitude of Iceland divide themſelves into three bodies; one of theſe ſupplies the Weſtern Iſles and coaſts of Scotland; another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain down the Channel; and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk-fiſhes follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water; theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The moſt ſeemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea: between the head and neck were ſeven or eight very thick folds, and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay fathoms. They have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet, the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The peculiarities related of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip from which it was ſeen; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; the ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and its excrement, which floats upon the ſurface of the water, is corroſive.

The exiſtence of the kraken, or korven, is ſtrongly aſſerted; and, as it is ſaid to exiſt in theſe ſeas, we think proper to mention it in this place, leaving it to the reader to give what credit to it he pleaſes. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and, when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes ſport, and ſea-weeds grow: upon emerging farther, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong, and his death was attended by ſuch a ſtench, that the channel was impaſſable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may ſafely ſay,

that the exiſtence of this fiſh accounts for many of the phenomena of floating iſlands and tranſitory appearances in the ſea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of ſuch an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but I cannot credit all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans long, and undoubtedly has as much reſemblance as an ape has to the human ſpecies: a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characteriſe its head; its arms are ſhort, but without joints, or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their ſexes: though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden; and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a whirlpool of great depth and extent; ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks: and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs in which they are about to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom. Even whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea-vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the gulf of Bothnia: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſes again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered, that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY.] The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops, as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal

juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute; but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries, with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few by profeſſion, who are hatters, ſhoemakers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant, is an artiſt, and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper ſubject of contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury; and this middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it: for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any cover upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour: and in 1733 four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhail, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY] We muſt refer to Denmark for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America, long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which is generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with thoſe of Denmark.

DENMARK * PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of the ISLAND in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	240†	between	54 and 58 North latitude.
Breadth	114		8 and 11 Eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the ſound; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great Britain on the weſt.

Denmark proper is divided into two parts: the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbria Cherſoneſus*, and the Iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark, the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch a power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery; ſo that they were bought and ſold with the lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleſwic and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers, has indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark, or in Holſtein, happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate

* See Mallet's Denmark, page 1 to 18. vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt, a method which is the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhall think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle 30,000. They have alſo ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea-coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By a numeration made, in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his Dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee, by which

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Zealand	283,466	Duchy of Sleſwic	243,605
Funen	143,988	Duchy of Holſtein	134,665
Norway	723,141	Oldenburgh	62,854
Iſlands of Ferro	4,754	Delmenhorſt	16,217
		Sum total,	2,017,027

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; yet, every thing conſidered, it is greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark has been ſo ſhackled, and her merchants ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that this kingdom is at preſent one of the moſt indigent ſtates in Europe. Theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it might be, if the adminiſtration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agriculture, and other arts. The empreſs of Ruſſia, in 1773, ceded to the king of Denmark that portion of Holſtein which deſcended to the line of Holſtein-Gottorp, in exchange for Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, which ſhe gave to the prince of Lubeck. This exchange is favourable to Denmark, both as to trade and population.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage, which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed; and from a brave, enterprizing, and warlike people, they are become indolent and timid. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhow. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now

begin to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION,] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; beſides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. Theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe profeſſion is to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a diſtinction of their eccleſiaſtical dreſs, for they have neither cathedral nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs. They are paid by the ſtate, as all the church-lands were appropriated to the government at the reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court: and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. Denmark has two univerſities, that of Copenhagen, and that of Keil; two academical colleges at Soroe and Odenſee, and thirty-two other great ſchools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal ſociety of ſciences, an hiſtorical ſociety for the ſtudy of northern hiſtory, another of Icelandic hiſtory and literature, an academy for painting and architecture, a college of phyſicians and ſurgeons, and another ſociety of ſciences at Drontheim.*

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents: theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars: but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borichius, and the Bartholines. The ſcience of botany owes great obligations to the celebrated Chriſtian Oeder, to whom, through the liberality of his monarch, we are indebted for the Flora Danica. In ſpeaking of the publications on natural hiſtory, it would be unpardonable to omit mentioning the moſt ſplendid work of the kind ever produced in any nation; it is a collection of rare ſhells, in two volumes folio, engraved and coloured by Francis Michael Regenfuſs, at the royal expenſe. "The firſt volume, which is the only one I have ſeen, contains a ſhort account of the collections of natural hiſtory, and particularly of ſhells in Denmark; a preliminary diſcourſe on conchology, with a detail of the ſeveral authors who have written on the ſubject, and their different ſyſtems, and 78 complete and delicately coloured figures, in 12 plates, accompanied with ſcientific deſcriptions in the Latin, French, and German languages."† The round tower and Chriſtian's haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus: the Danes begin to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama; and ſeveral of their learned men have lately employed their reſearches on the hiſtory and antiquities of the North.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but it is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others, belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitls. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in the lanes chiefly of timber. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which

* Zimmermann, p. 79.

† Coxe's Travels into Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. 2. p. 566, 568.

admits of only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for the ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces is too large for the kingdom. The pollice of Copenhagen is extremely regular; and people may walk through the city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapeſtry in many of them beautiful, particularly the ſtory of Eſther, and an aſſortment of wild beaſts, after the manner of Quida. A colonnade at each extremity forms the ſtables, which for their extent and beauty are equal to any in Europe. The fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederiefburg. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian the IVth. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars, and on the ſummit of the buildings are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The knight's hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda ſpent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with 12 windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhewn the very ſpot, where, according to that tradition, that prince was poiſoned. Jagerſburg is a park, which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments, and the quaintneſs of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

Elſineur is well built, contains 5,000 inhabitants, and with reſpect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly fortified on the land ſide; and, toward the ſea, is defended by a ſtrong fort, containing ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, and in paſſing lower their top-ſails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of timber, and other materials for ſhipbuilding; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh Dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are ſalt, wine, brandy, and ſilk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourſe with England, from whence they import broad-cloths,

clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England.

Nothing ſhows the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India company at Copenhagen; and ſoon after four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617, the Danes built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt-India company were ſoon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt-India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enenlarging their ancient capital ſtock; and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt-India company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg, on the coaſt of Guinea; and they carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the royal muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the conſuls in the time of the Roman republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, both in the form of a hunting horn: that of gold, ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and an half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwic, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquarians and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally upon the ſame plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates; who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, the order of the citizens and farmers: and after the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other: the crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands, which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances. And when the clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and tyrannized over the people. Chriſtian the ſecond, by endeavouring, in an imprudent manner, to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the third, uniting with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the third, the people, inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes of rendering themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo miſerable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people, upon this, threw their eyes towards the king for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more *ſlaves* to the lords. This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, ſpeaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *ſlavery;* the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

On the 18th of October, 1660, the three orders of nobility, clergy and people ſigned each a ſeparate act; by which they conſented, that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and inveſted the king with abſolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family; a relic which perpetuates the memory of the humbled inſolence of the nobles, and the hypocriſy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge againſt them, perſuaded the people that his only wiſhes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, cruſhing themſelves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of their privileges; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederic the third had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon all the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to entruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects. The ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein, is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwic, in the town of that name.

Matters of importance are for the moſt part decided by the king in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. In this council, laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal authority: and any great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected, by the king. Here, likewiſe, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges; and decides upon the moſt important affairs of his dominions.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in the ſupreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence, of a capital nature, can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark; but it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice againſt the nobility, or thoſe who are favoured by the court. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtain an order from the king to ſtop all the law-proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark, was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes ſince publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can alter the laws, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people undergo a great degree of oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and

ſervility with which their liberties have been ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common modes of execution in Denmark are beheading and hanging; in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital puniſhments are not common in Denmark: and the other principal modes of puniſhments, are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe, to houſes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK. After the acceſſion of the preſent king, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, had obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the former war; but never could get free from French influence, notwithſtanding his connexions with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention other circumſtances, did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation; eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded. The preſent Daniſh king's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any further expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her naval ſtores.

Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power, is, when the Baltic (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] The king of Denmark's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects: the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expenſes of fortifications are defrayed by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are uncertain, becauſe they are abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of three miles between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and the value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch,

being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenſe of light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes, who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of George I. of England, the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as the ſubjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic ſea, and about 20 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearly.

A liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates.

	Rix dollars, at 4s. ſterling each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax,	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, &c.	950,000
Cuſtom-houſe duties,	154,000
Duties of the Sound,	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits,	27,000
Tythes and poll-tax of Norway,	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana,	160,000
Other tolls,	552,000
Revenues from mines,	300,000
Revenue from Sleſwic, Holſtein, &c.	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and maſts from beech,	20,000
Tolls on the Weſer,	7,500
Poſt-office,	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro,	35,000
Farms of Bornholm,	14,800
Oyſter fiſhery,	22,000
Stamp paper,	40,000
Sum total,	5,011,300

In Engliſh money, £. 1,002,460

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then amounted to only £. 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they maintained with great care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of near 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which conſiſts of a militia, who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry are ſtationed in Norway, where they live upon the peaſantry at free quarter; and in Denmark, the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money The fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of them being old, and wanting great repairs, more than 25 ſhips cannot be fitted out upon the greateſt emergency. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for

the uſe of the marine. There are nearly 40,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to two dollars per month; but they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodgings allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and of *Daneburg*: the former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. and is deemed the moſt honourable: its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured watered riband; worn like the George of England: the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, conſiſt of a white riband with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *pietate et juſtitia*.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phenomenon, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, has adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt, that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia*, or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom he and his ſucceſſors commanded were ſo blended, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land, and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders.

Thus the terms, Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed, long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature, under that prince, throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons, with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial; that ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark, and that of England under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, in which Margaret mounted the throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by here-

* By Scythia may be underſtood all theſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia, now inhabited by the Danes Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars, whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, ſo late as the 13th century, to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe: hence by ſir William Temple, and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of nations, the Store houſe of Europe*.

ditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, was diſſolved; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt infamous tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. His uncle Frederic duke of Holſtein was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of Frederic. Chriſtian openly embraced the opinions of Luther, and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark, by that wiſe and politic prince, Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league, formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredericſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter, marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England, under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild; by which he ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude thoſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady, intrepid conduct of Frederic, under theſe misfortunes, endeared him to his ſubjects: and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and defeated the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhowed on every occaſion, great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet, under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes, but the iſlands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Chriſtian obſtinately continued till he was

defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon; and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in his military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France in 1679. Chriſtian, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Chriſtian, after a variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions to Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law, the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the ſtates general, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated at Gadeſbuch by the Swedes, who laid his favourite city Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf, by ſeizing great part of the ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, reducing Wiſmar, in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he aimed at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with a moſt embittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwic. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction*, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though pacific, he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a diſpute with the king of England about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburg, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty in which he availed himſelf of the king of England's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtain a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, Chriſtian ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without

* An agreement, by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the house of Austria, in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.

leave to Iceland; but the difference was accommodated by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken: but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not ſuffer all Scandinavia to be ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people. His ſon, Frederic V. in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to George II. of England. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; and wiſely took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. By his intervention, the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to the preſent Danish king, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January 1749; and married the youngeſt ſiſter of George III. the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. When the princeſs Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her, that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct ſhe became the depoſitory of all the young queen's ſecrets, while at the ſame time, it is ſaid, ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot and debauchery. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen; and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her of the exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England and France, perſuading her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen gently reproaching him with his conduct, his mother-in-law endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon good terms with the king. She alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This exaſperated the old queen; and her thoughts were entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge. But her views of this kind at firſt appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, becauſe the king had diſplaced ſeveral of her friends, who were about the court, and had been increaſing the national debt in times of the moſt profound peace, and were rioting on the ſpoils of the public. However, ſhe at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter; and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head of the party. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of the public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was, that things ſhould continue upon the ſame footing that they had been for ſome time before. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw the child, ſhe, with a malicious ſmile, de-

clared that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee: which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated; and it was aſſerted, that the ruling party had formed a deſign to ſupercede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry, was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo attempted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make the inferior officers believe, that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted, that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions: his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the proper meaſures to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high-treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon or dethrone the king; and if that charge could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Moltke and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends excuſed themſelves from taking any open and active part in the affair. However, the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, went with the queen-dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre, to awake him; and in the midſt of the ſurpriſe that this intruſion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately compel him to ſign; and that the only means to prevent ſo imminent a danger, was to ſign the orders, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid, that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders, but at length complied. Count Rantzau, and three officers, haſtened at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, aſſiſted

by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, now entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon; they both underwent frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off. Struenſee at firſt abſolutely denied having had any criminal intercourſe with the queen; but afterwards confeſſed the fact; and though he is ſaid to have been induced to this by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. Beſide, no meaſures were adopted by the court of Great-Britain to clear up the queen's character in this reſpect.

During the confinement of queen Matilda in the palace of Cronenburgh, ſhe inhabited the governor's apartment, and had permiſſion to walk upon the ſide-batteries, or upon the leads of the tower. She was uncertain of the fate that awaited her; and had great reaſon to apprehend, that the party which had occaſioned her arreſt, meditated ſtill more violent meaſures. When the Engliſh miniſter at Copenhagen brought an order for her enlargement, which he had obtained by his ſpirited conduct, ſhe was ſo ſurpriſed with the unexpected intelligence, that ſhe inſtantly burſt into a flood of tears, embraced him in a tranſport of joy, and called him her deliverer. After a ſhort conference, the miniſter propoſed that ſhe ſhould immediately embark on board of a ſhip that was waiting to carry her from a kingdom in which ſhe had experienced ſuch a train of misfortunes. But however anxious ſhe was to depart, one circumſtance checked the exceſs of her joy: a few months before her impriſonment, ſhe had been delivered of a princeſs, (as has already been related) whom ſhe ſuckled herſelf. The rearing of this child had been her only comfort; and ſhe had conceived a more than parental attachment to it, from its having been the conſtant companion of her miſery. The infant was at that period afflicted with the meaſles; and, having nurſed it with unceaſing ſolicitude, ſhe was deſirous of continuing her attention and care. Thoſe circumſtances had ſo endeared the child to her, rendered more ſuſceptible of tenderneſs in a priſon than in a court, that when an order for detaining the young princeſs was intimated to her, ſhe teſtified the ſtrongeſt emotions of grief, and could not for ſome time be prevailed upon to bid a final adieu. At length, after beſtowing repeated careſſes upon this darling object of her affection, ſhe retired to the veſſel in an agony of deſpair. She remained upon the deck, her eyes immoveably directed towards the palace of Cronenburgh, which contained her child, that had been ſo long her only comfort, until darkneſs intercepted her view. The veſſel having made but little way during the night, at day-break ſhe obſerved with fond ſatisfaction that the palace was ſtill viſible; and could not be perſuaded to enter the cabin as long as ſhe could diſcover the fainteſt glimpſe of the battlements.

It is well known that her majeſty reſided in the city of Zell, in the electorate of Hanover, where ſhe was carried off by a malignant fever, on the 10th day of May 1775, and in the ſixteenth day of her illneſs; aged 23 years and 10 months.

Queen Matilda was naturally of a lively diſpoſition, until her misfortunes brought on a ſettled melancholy, which preyed upon her mind. In company ſhe endeavoured to diſſemble her ſorrows, and aſſume a cheerfulneſs to which her heart was a

ſtranger. She became extremely fond of ſolitude; and, when alone, indulged her grief in the moſt bitter lamentations. She retained, to her laſt moments, the moſt unaffected attachment to her children in Denmark: with all the anxiety of a parent ſhe made repeated enquiries after them, and was delighted with receiving the minuteſt accounts of their health, amuſements, and education. Having obtained their portraits from Copenhagen, ſhe placed them in her moſt retired apartment, often apoſtrophized them as if they were preſent, and addreſſed them in the tendereſt manner*.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to that ſpirited and politic meaſure, the armed neutrality, propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counter-ſigned by the prince royal†.

THE DANISH KING's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 30 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia, (termed ducal Holſtein) the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburgh and Lubec: but on the 16th of November, 1773, the ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, privileges, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it now with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburgh. It was built in that ſituation, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the latter. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North and even from Hamburgh.

The famous city of Hamburgh lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commerical towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a variety of noble edifices, both public and private; it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals.

* Coxe's travels into Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. ii. p. 516—518.

†Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princeſs Carolina Matilda of England; and has iſſue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 18, 1768; and Louiſa Auguſta, princeſs royal, born July 7th, 1771, who was married to the prince of Sleswic-Holſtein, May 27, 1786.

Hamburgh has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, once the capital of the Hans towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy, and governed by its own magiſtrates. It has twenty pariſh churches, beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require that we ſhould treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method obſerved in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North cape, in 71 30 N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is the moſt valuable; and ſome parts, in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians. It is needleſs to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts are divided into ſmaller diſtricts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders, driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from the word *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the introduction, may eaſily conceive, that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and, during winter, it never riſes; but, as has been obſerved, the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight, and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In the winter, it is no unuſual thing for the lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are excessive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts, which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES AND FORESTS.] The reader muſt form in idea a maſs of mountains irregularly crouded together, to give him an idea of Lapland; they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial paradiſe; roſes and other flowers

grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of mild weather; for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage, beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in the rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all three countries. The *Zibelin*, a creature reſembling the martin, is a native of Lapland; and the ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that they are frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares are ſaid to grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. The moſt remarkable of the Lapland animals is the *rein-deer*, which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of various comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All deſcribers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noiſe that it makes when it moves its legs, which is attributed to its ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the ſame climate. The hoof, however, is ſtill further protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes, renders the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form, in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant, however, the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may ſerve to keep them together, when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs; and in the winter they live upon moſs: they have a wonderful ſagacity in finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies, which they perform with ſo little ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down, with the reins (which are faſtened to the horns of the animal) in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of the ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſs is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is generally ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little trouble in directing him. At night they ſearch for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in the woods. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried: their ſkin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about in the fields, they may be ſhot as other game. But

it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Their ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of eighty* miles a day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when confined in one of thoſe carriages or pulkhas, or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. In fine, ſo numerous and great are the advantages derived from theſe animals, that the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without them.

About autumn, when the lakes of Lapland begin to freeze, the water-fowl, which are found there in great abundance, migrate towards the ſouth; and upon the firſt opening of the ſpring, they return in large flocks to their prior habitations where they find a plentiful ſubſiſtance from the grubs of the gnats. Theſe grubs, too, ſerve for the food of the *tetraones*, or patridge tribe, thouſands whereof are daily taken, and ſent to Stockholm. Theſe birds are caught in ſuch large quantities by the Laplanders, as to ſupply them with their ordinary proviſion in autumn, as the eggs of the water-fowl are their ſupport in ſpring§.

"Thoſe who have not ſeen it, will ſcarcely believe what numbers of water-fowl are to be met with; and my watermen would every now and then put in to ſhore, to look for the eggs of wild ducks and geeſe, among the reeds, which grow here and there upon the river ſide, or in the little iſlands which in ſeveral places are formed in the middle of the river, and that after the manner of the Laplanders, who get vaſt quantities of theſe eggs, and of the wild-fowl too, when in ſeaſon; for inſtance, the old ones in winter, and the goſlins and young ducks in ſummer, which they have ſeveral ways of killing; and their prey is in ſuch plenty, that ſhould one of them go out a ſhooting for two hours, and not bring home a load of game, he would certainly conclude that ſome enchanter, who bore him a grudge, had, out of mere ſpite, ſpoiled his ſport‖."

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. The greater part have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they call Piſtave, and which ſerve them for almanacs. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries, from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the chriſtian religion; but they can hardly be ſaid even yet to be chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the kings of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are found amongſt the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtle, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to

* Holberg says, the rein deer, "if he is preſſed, will travel at the rate of ten or twelve Swedish miles a day (70 or 84 Engliſh miles); but by ſuch hard driving he is generally deſtroyed. It, however, frequently happens, that he will perſevere in his journey 50 miles without intermiſſion, and without taking any refreſhment." Linnaei Amoenit. Academ. Vol. I. p. 169.

§ Holberg.

‖ Mortray's Travels, vol. ii. p. 301.

their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want*. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the Druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul; and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Juhles; who they think, inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but, being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into fiſhers, and mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains, and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the fiſhers. Some poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark the rein-deers on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one is ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland-fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chace, and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides attending their rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chace, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and in tanning hides: but it is ſaid to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen; in which we are told the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them according to the ſeaſon, and the means of the poſſeſſor; ſome with brias, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open aſunder. A little place, ſurrounded with ſtones, is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but almoſt conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold-furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin, or even ſilver baſons: to theſe may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of

* This is also a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the sorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman.

things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of a fathom or ſix foot from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions; the chace and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings made of their blood, by putting it either alone, or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. The fleſh of the bear they conſider as moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog; as well as all ſorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh, dried in the open air, which they eat raw. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk; they make alſo broths and fiſh ſoups. Brandy is ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a mat on the ground, and then men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal, they make a ſhort prayer; and as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dreſs of the Laplanders they uſe no kind of linen. In the Flora Lapponica, Linnæus ſays, "Perhaps the curious reader will wonder how the people in Lapland, during the terrible cold that reigns there in winter, can preſerve their lives; ſince almoſt all birds, and even ſome wild beaſts, deſert it at that time. The Laplander, not only in the day, but through the whole winter nights, is obliged to wander about in the woods with his herds of rein-deer. For the rein-deer never come under cover, nor eat any kind of fodder, but a particular kind of *liverwort*. On this account, the herdſmen are under a neceſſity of living continually in the woods, in order to take care of their cattle, leaſt they ſhould be devoured by wild beaſts. No part of our body is more eaſily deſtroyed by cold than the extremities of the limbs which are moſt remote from the ſun of this microcoſm, the heart. The kibes that happen to our hands and feet, ſo common in the northern parts of Sweden, prove this. In Lapland, you will never ſee ſuch a thing; although, were we to judge by the ſituation of the country, we ſhould imagine juſt the contrary; eſpecially as the people wear no ſtockings, as we do, not only ſingle, but double and triple. The Laplander guards himſelf againſt the cold in the following manner. He wears breeches made of rein-deer ſkins with the hair on, reaching down to his heels, and ſhoes made of the ſame materials, the hairy part turned outwards. He puts into his ſhoes, *ſlender-eared*, *broad leaved*, *cyperus graſs*, *carex veſicaria*. *Spec. Pl.* (or the bladdar carex) that is cut in ſummer and dried. This he firſt combs and rubs in his hands, and then places it in ſuch a manner, that it not only covers his feet quite round, but his legs alſo; and being thus guarded he is quite ſecured againſt the intenſe cold. With this graſs they ſtuff their gloves likewiſe, in order to preſerve their hands. As this graſs keeps off the cold in winter, ſo in ſummer it hinders the feet from ſweating, and at the ſame time preſerves them from being annoyed by ſtriking againſt ſtones, &c. for their ſhoes are very thin, being made, not of tanned leather, but of the raw hide*."

Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves; the ſkirts reach to the knees; and it is faſtened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To

* Stillingfleet's tracts, p. 137. 133.

this girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the cloſe coat is of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat has a collar, which comes up higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and earrings, to which ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head; and, as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours,

Lapland is but thinly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are, in general, conſiderably ſhorter than the more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman, who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, well-made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though it is in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming; in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they are ſaid to deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and, on coming to themſelves, to be utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander deſires to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, and he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

Commerce.] Little can be ſaid for the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes, made of rein-deer's milk. They receive for theſe, rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpiritous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war.

SWEDEN.*

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Length	800 miles	between	55 and 70 degrees north latitude
Breadth	500		85 and 105 east longitude from Phil.

THIS country is bounded by the Baltic ſea, the Sound, and the Categate, (or Skagerack) on the ſouth-eaſt, ſouth, and ſouth-weſt; by the mountains of Norway on the weſt; by Daniſh and Ruſſian Lapland on the north; and by Ruſſia on the eaſt. It is divided into five general parts, which again are ſubdivided into their reſpective provinces, as follow—

1. SWEDEN PROPER: Upland, Sudermania, Nericia, Weſtmania, Dalecarlia.

2. GOTHLAND: Eaſt Gothia, Weſt Gothia, the iſles of Gothland and Oeland, Vermland, the fief of Bohus, Dalia, Scania, Halland, Blekingen.

3. NORLAND: Geſtricia, Helſingia, Medelpad, Herjedalia. Ongermania, Jemtland, Weſt Bothnia.

4. FINLAND: Finland proper, the iſle of Aland, Eaſt Bothnia, Tavaſtland, Nyland, Savolax, with parts of Kymene and Carelia.

5. LAPLAND: Diſtricts of Oſele, Umo, Pito, Lulo, Torno, Kemy.

Eſtimating the two firſt diviſions jointly 64,000 ſquare miles, Norland 96,000, and Finland 50,000; they make together 210,000. Lapland, which probably contains 100,000, is, both in ſoil and climate, of very inferior value; yet its mines, fiſheries, extenſive marſhes, and foreſts, will bear improvement.

Sweden has, beſides, in Germany, a part of Pomerania, the iſland of Rugen, and the diſtrict of Wiſmar; making in the whole 1440 ſquare miles: it alſo obtained from France, in the year 1785, the ſmall iſland of St. Bartholomew in the Weſt Indies, computed to be about thirty miles ſquare.

This kingdom is therefore, next to Ruſſia, the largeſt ſtate in Europe; Finland alone being nearly equal to England and Wales; but, with its preſent population, and partial improvement, it ranks only among the ſecond powers of Europe.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] "Though Sweden is ſituated under a rigorous climate, it enjoys a much milder temperature than thoſe countries of Aſia and America which have the ſame latitude. For this advantage it is undoubtedly indebted to the waters with which it is waſhed and interſected, as well as to that high degree of cultivation to which it has attained." The winter is long and very cold, but dry and clear. The ſhort days are generally enlivened by a ſplendid ſun; and the long nights receive a mild and agreeable light from the moon, the aurora borealis, and the reflection of the ſnow. "In ſummer, the ſun remains ſo long above the horizon, that the night conſiſts only of a ſlight twilight; vegetation then acquires its full vigour, and Nature ſeems to regain that time which ſhe has loſt during the froſty ſeaſon." The tranſition between theſe ſeaſons is quicker than in more ſouthern climes; and very rapid in the northern provinces. Theſe have ſcarcely any ſpring or autumn; but their ſhort ſummer is very warm, which, with the length of their days, ripens the grain ſooner than in the ſouthern. The diſtrict of Torno in Weſt Bothnia, enjoys the pleaſing phenomenon of a *midnight ſun* for ſeveral nights about midſummer, and in the winter ſolſtice they ſee this luminary but juſt riſing above the horizon. "Thunder is ſeldom heard in this country. It produces no venom-

* This account of Sweden has been compiled by a Swediſh gentleman in Philadelphia, principally from Catteau's view of Sweden, the lateſt and beſt publication on the ſubject.

ous reptiles: and earthquakes never ſpread terror and conſternation. Some of its learned men pretend that traces of extinguiſhed volcanoes are to be ſeen in it; but their proofs are far from convincing. The pure and ſharp air which the Swedes breathe, renders them vigorous, and preſerves them from epidemical diſeaſes. The plague has ſometimes made havoc amongſt them; but it appears that the infection was conveyed to them from the ſouthern countries. They often attain to a very great age: according to a memoir publiſhed by Mr. Wargentin, there were lately found, during a period of nine or ten years, 2036 men, and 3540 women, above the age of 90; 212 men, and 328 women, between 100 and 105; 31 men and 36 women between 106 and 110; 22 men and 19 women, between 111 and 120; one man aged 122, and one woman of 127."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS, WATERS, AND MINERALS.

"Linnæus reckons that there are in Sweden 1300 ſpecies of plants, 200 of which are uſed in medicine, and 1400 ſpecies of animals. Wolves, foxes, hares, birds of prey, moor fowl, cocks of the wood, together with freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, are found here in great abundance; bears, elks, does, roebucks, ſables, beavers, and pole-cats, are more uncommon. It has been remarked, that no beeches grow beyond Oſtrogothia, and no oaks beyond Upland; the birch grows in all the provinces. The pine and the fir, however, form the principal part of thoſe foreſts with which Sweden is covered: they preſerve their verdure during the whole winter, and afford a happy relief to the eye, dazzled by the continual ſplendor of the ſnow: they preſerve the image of life amidſt an almoſt univerſal death." Wild apple, pear, cherry, and plumb trees, grow here and there up to the 60th degree, with the aria, prunus-padus, hazle, and ſervice, (or rown); theſe three laſt, with ſtrawberries, huckleberries, cloudberries, and lingon, (better than cranberries) are in plenty over the whole country: the northerly provinces alone poſſeſs the delicious rubus arcticus: currants, both red and white, are found even in Lapland.

"With regard to mineral productions, Sweden is very rich. Iron is found in many places near the ſurface of the earth; it is met with in veins and maſſes. It is generally contained in a calx of phlogiſticated iron. The ore of Danmora in Upland is the beſt. The mine of Fahlun produces copper, well known throughout all Europe. This mine is 180 fathoms in depth, and the mineral is a very hard pyrites. The richeſt ſilver mine in the country is found at Sala, in the province of Weſtmania; the mineral conſiſts of cubical wolfram. This mine produces a ſmall quantity of pure ſilver, ſome of which has been found alſo of late years in an iron mine at Wermland, under ſtrata of clay which interſect it. The gold mine diſcovered about the middle of this century, at Ædolfors, in Smoland, furniſhes only a very ſmall quantity of that metal, which is contained in a calcareous matrix; the miners find ſometimes a few pieces of it perfectly pure. This mine is eighty-four fathoms in depth. Beſides theſe, the bowels of the earth abound with lead, marble, alum, limeſtone, coal, vitriol, curious petrifications, porphyry, amethyſts, loadſtone, ſlate, talc, quickſilver, ſulphur, mother-of-pearl, and ſome other productions of the mineral kingdom.

"The face of the country in Sweden is diverſified with a profuſion of eminences, hills, and mountains. The moſt remarkable of theſe, the Sevebergſrygn, is a chain of mountains, which, in Weſtrogothia, begins to riſe above the level of the ſea; it extends towards the north, between Norway and Norland, and ſeparates theſe two countries by ſummits covered with eternal ſnow. According to mr. Bergman, it ſtretches as far as the northern part of Aſia, and in that quarter of the globe is terminated only by the boundaries of the earth. The mountain of Kinekulle, on the banks of lake Wenner, deſerves the attention of every traveller who traverſes Sweden: it conſiſts of a number of terraces riſing one above another, the

higheſt of which preſents a ſcene equally rich and variegated. The mountain of Omberg, in Smoland, is ſo high, that four provinces, ſix cities, and fifty churches, may be ſeen from the top of it. This mountain on one ſide touches lake Wetter, and in digging at the bottom of it, there is found a quarry of limeſtone, which extends pretty far under the water. Theſe, as well as all the other mountains of Sweden, are compoſed of gravel, freeſtone, calcareous ſtone, ſlate, different kinds of petrifactions, and granite; the baſis of the greater part of them is granite, which is ſo plentiful, that it is found in large ſeparate maſſes, that often riſe to a conſiderable height. Jetteberg, in Weſtrogothia, forms a maſs of this nature. Taberg, ſituated in Smoland, is a chain compoſed entirely of iron ore. There are three chains of the ſame kind in Swediſh Lapland, viz. Kerumavara, Luoſavara, and Gellivara.

"The ſoil of the plains and vallies which lie between the hills and mountains, is very proper for cultivation. The heat of the ſun by being there concentred, and the ſprings that fall from the ſurrounding eminences, render them fertile, even when they are not refreſhed by ſhowers of rain. The plough is employed alſo on many of the hills, which, by active induſtry, are now converted into fields fit for tillage.

"The waters by which Sweden is waſhed and interſected, are very numerous. Here you find a vaſt arm of the ſea, there an extenſive lake, and a little farther a broad and rapid river, or a foaming and impetuous torrent. The Baltic, which extends along the kingdom, forming two large gulphs, that of Bothnia and that of Finland, ſeems to be the grand reſource of Sweden. Much has been written on the decreaſe of the waters of this ſea; and about the middle of the preſent century, a very warm diſpute aroſe on the ſubject among the Swediſh literati. Many arguments may be advanced on both ſides; but the queſtion is not yet determined. Mr. Bergman, in his *Phyſical deſcription of the earth*, inclines towards the ſyſtem of its decreaſe, and his authority has conſiderable weight. The northern ſea, or the German ocean, waſhes the provinces of Scania, Halland, Weſtrogothia, and Bohus, under the name of the Categate, or Skagerack. The coaſts of the diſtricts bordering on theſe two ſeas, abound with rocks, iſlands and promontories, which form a number of gulphs and bays. Theſe paſſes, formidable to navigators, are in the language of the country called Schæren.

"The rivers of Sweden are rapid, and ſupply abundance of fiſh; but the numerous rocks and ſhoals which are found in them, render them unfit for the purpoſes of navigation. The Dal has a very picturesque fall, near Elfcarleby, in Upland, and produces great plenty of ſalmon. Gothia is celebrated for the cataracts of Trolhætta, which ſignifies, the *ſorcerer's manor*. The river Motala in its courſe forms a number of beautiful caſcades near the city of Norkœping, and, like the Dal, is very abundant in ſalmon. Lakes of greater or leſs extent are found in moſt of the provinces. The Mælar, which waters Upland, Sudermania, and Weſtmania, is ſeventy-ſix miles in length and fifty in breadth: it contains a ſurpriſing number of iſlands; they are reckoned to be 1290, ſeveral of which are ſix or eight miles in extent, and exhibit a picture of fertility and abundance. The banks of the Mælar are covered with towns, villages, farms, and gentlemen's ſeats. At Stockholm, this beautiful lake diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northen, and the other the ſouthern current. The Hielmar waſhes Sudermania and Nericia; it is forty-four miles in length, and three or four in breadth; it contains fewer iſlands than the Mælar, into which it diſcharges itſelf, near the city of Torſhælla. The Wenner, which divides its waters among three provinces, Weſtrogothia, Dalia, and Wermland, is ninety miles in length, and in breadth forty-five,: it is much higher than the northern ſea, with which it has a communication by the river Gothia: it increaſes and decreaſes regularly, abounds with fiſh, and contains a number of iſlands. Of all the lakes of Sweden, the Wetter is the

moſt intereſting, on account of the different phenomena which it exhibits to the obſerver. Four provinces, Oſtrogothia, Weſtrogothia, Smoland, and Nericia, are waſhed by its waters; its greateſt length is ninety-five miles, and its greateſt breadth twenty. It receives a continual ſupply from the ſtreams of forty rivulets, and is conſiderably higher than the Baltic, into which it diſcharges itſelf by the Motala. Its waters are ſo clear, that a piece of money may be diſtinguiſhed in it at the depth of twenty fathoms; in ſome places its bottom has never yet been diſcovered, though ſounded with a very long line: the Wetter often increaſes and decreaſes in a very ſhort ſpace of time; this is ſaid to be occaſioned by ſubterranean winds, and upon ſuch occaſions it makes a rumbling kind of noiſe, and a tempeſt ſoon after follows. The ſame winds, when leaſt expected, break the ice with which the lake is covered in winter, and the ſulphureous and bituminous ſubſtances depoſited at its bottom forcing a paſſage, produce exploſions, the noiſe of which is very alarming to thoſe who live in the neighbourhood. In Swediſh Lapland, there are two lakes, Enara and Kemijarvi, which are remarkable on account of their extent: the firſt is in length 130 miles, and the other 200." Mineral ſprings abound in every province; their number is not leſs than 360: that of Loca, in Weſtmania, and Medevi in Eaſt Gothia, are very ſalutary; the latter was, by profeſſor Bergman, prefered to all the reſt.

Population.] Bloody wars, with the conſequent neglect of induſtry, had till the death of Charles XII. greatly retarded the population of Sweden. Since that period, however, it has been promoted with anxious care. On the one hand, the means of ſubſiſtence have been increaſed; and on the other, ſalutary meaſures have been adopted for the preſervation of health and life: in every province, ſome phyſicians are appointed to take care of the poor; inoculation is become general; hoſpitals have been enlarged, extended and improved; aſylums for widows and orphans, and lying-in places for indigent or forlorn women, have been eſtabliſhed. In Stockholm the college of medicine has lately prepared a houſe for free inoculation; and public midwives cannot practice there without previous examination. The common paupers, all over the country, have competent proviſion in their pariſhes, and their number is, and will be ſmall, while the common people preſerve their healthy conſtitution, frugality, and innocence.

"In order to aſcertain the exact ſtate of the population of the kingdom, the ſtates, in 1741, created a remarkable inſtitution, highly worthy of being imitated in every other country. This inſtitution, called *the commiſſion of regiſters*, is entruſted with the care of collecting and comparing all the regiſters of marriages, births, and deaths, in Sweden; it correſponds with every town and pariſh, and diſtributes to the magiſtrates and clergy forms of regiſters divided into ſeveral tables: the firſt table contains births, deaths, and marriages in general; the ſecond deaths; and the third the ſum total of the inhabitants. The two firſt tables are accompanied with the number of legitimate and illegitimate children; that of double or triple births, and that of divorces: to theſe are alſo added the ages of thoſe women who are delivered; the ages of thoſe who marry; the ſex and age of thoſe who die; the cauſes of their death; the diſeaſes prevalent at each ſeaſon, &c. &c. Mr. Wargentin having found, by the increaſe in eight dioceſes, that between 1775 and 1780, the number of inhabitants had been augmented 89,000, thence concluded, in a memoir preſented to the academy of ſciences at Stockholm, that the fourteen dioceſes, which compoſe the kingdom, had gained an increaſe of 200,000 ſouls from 1772 to 1782, and that the number of inhabitants at the latter period, might be conſidered as amounting to nearly three millions, including 100,400 in the German poſſeſſions. Population is ſufficiently numerous in the ſouthern provinces; but it decreaſes in proportion as we advance northwards: two or three perſons often occupy a ſquare league. Some of the northen provinces have, however, increaſed con-

ſiderably in population of late years. Norland has experienced a happy revolution in ſome of its diſtricts: in the year 1729 there were in all Finland only 142,600 inhabitants; but at preſent there are above 600,000. The whole population is now above three millions, of which the people in the country make eight ninths.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] "Though Sweden is covered with rocks, woods, and mountains, its inhabitants are mild and peaceable. Theft, murder, and atrocious crimes, in general, are very uncommon amongſt them; and even in war, they do not appear ſanguinary. Every traveller who traverſes their country, muſt pay a tribute of gratitude and eſteem to their attention, diſintereſtedneſs and hoſpitality. Naturally ſerious and grave, they are acquainted with, and cultivate the valuable bonds of ſociability. Under the moſt ſimple external appearance, they conceal a profound judgment, an acute and delicate genius, and often an active and intrepid ſpirit. They long made a conſpicuous figure by their military exploits, and they have ſince proved, that they are equally fit for the arts of peace. They are fond of travelling; but at the ſame time, they love their country, never forget it, and always long to ſee it again." They unite love for liberty with a zeal for civil order: without ſervile homage for royalty, they have always borne the warmeſt affection and higheſt veneration for thoſe kings who were worthy of the throne. Probity and candour are general characteriſtics. Law ſuits are very rare in country places, and generally finiſhed without the aid of lawyers. The only vice, which in ſome degree may be called national, is an intemperate uſe of ſpiritous liquors, which, in many caſes, proves deſtructive to health, property, and morals. The higher claſſes are generally free from this: but many of them are corrupted by that love of pomp, and ſenſuality which prevails in other countries, with their neceſſary attendants, poverty, diſeaſes, frauds, celibacy, and illicit connexions.

"The capital of Sweden has had the fate of all thoſe proud cities, to which the riches of ſtates are conveyed; and in which they are accumulated. Except ſome few ſhades, ariſing from different degrees of population, Stockholm exhibits the ſame ſcenes as other places of the like kind. Here we may ſee the madneſs of luxury paſſing from the ſuperior to the inferior claſſes; a taſte for pleaſure giving birth to a diſlike for labour and the performance of one's duty; and ſeduction ſacrificing numberleſs unhappy victims, to gratify brutal and inordinate paſſions. Here alſo we meet with abundance of profeſſed gamblers, fine gentlemen and fine ladies—good-natured husbands, and modiſh wives who take advantage of their ſimplicity and condeſcenſion. The faſhions and cuſtoms which are imported from France, always obtain here a decided preference;" and have, with ſome good, cauſed much miſchief. Other great cities have more or leſs imitated the modiſh vices of the metropolis; but as yet they have not penetrated into the interior parts. Theſe frequently preſent charming ſcenes of a virtuous and elegant country life, ſimilar to thoſe which are ſo feelingly painted in Thomſon's ſeaſons.

Fondneſs for convivial pleaſures, muſic, and dancing, is a leading feature in the Swediſh character; and no nation has better mingled feſtive joy with moral ſentiment. Their weddings are celebrated with the moſt affecting ceremonies; thoſe of the more opulent farmers exhibit a ſhow of rural hoſpitality, plenty, ceremonious feſtivity, and cordial hilarity. The young couple, attended by a choſen ſet of their youthful friends, a band of muſicians, and a numerous retinue of neighbours and relations, repair to the parochial church, to give, before the altar, a reciprocal vow of ſacred love: a canopy of ſilk is held over the flowing curls of the ſwain, and the ſplendid crown of his bride, while the prieſt chants the nuptial benediction, accompanied with the melodious choir, and the ſolemn organ: arrived, under joyful acclamations, at the bridal houſe, which is adorned with flowers and ever-greens, they liſten to a freſh ſacerdotal benediction, and an excellent hymn, ſung by the whole company: the

ſumptuous banquet commences then with copious libations and ſpecific tunes for every toaſt; and is ſucceeded by a variety of dances: the gueſts, ſometimes 150 in number, are frequently entertained for five days. The poorer people make proportional exertions, and, agreeably to an old laudable cuſtom, are aided by their friends and neighbours. Chriſtening and churching is likewiſe productive of a feſtive day. Mowing, harveſt, and other extraordinary work is performed by the joint labour of one or two villages, and always rewarded with the feaſt and dance. Chriſtmas is kept for two weeks between public worſhip, and ſocial enjoyment: other feſtivals have their due ſhare. "Two days of the year, the firſt of May, and midſummer, are in Sweden particularly conſecrated to public mirth and joy. On the firſt of May, large fires, which ſeem to announce that natural warmth about to ſucceed the ſeverity of the winter, are kindled in the fields: around theſe, people aſſemble, while others go to enjoy good cheer, and with the glaſs in their hands to baniſh care and ſorrow. Midſummer day is ſtill better calculated to inſpire mirth and feſtivity: the fine ſeaſon is then eſtabliſhed; the ſun every where diffuſes vivifying rays; the tenants of the woods, freed from their long captivity, tune their throats to joy; the flocks range the fields at their eaſe, to taſte the juicy graſs; and man, awakened from that lethargy into which he has been ſunk, together with all nature, ſeems to be animated by a new ſoul, while his faculties reſume their wonted vigour, and his heart becomes open to the impreſſions of ſenſibility. On the evening before the happy period, the people aſſemble; the houſes are ornamented with boughs, and the young men and young women erect a pole, around which they dance till morning. Having recruited their ſtrength by ſome hours of repoſe, they repair to church, and after imploring the protection of the Supreme Being, they again give themſelves up to freſh effuſions of joy, which undoubtedly are no leſs agreeable to the father of mankind, than reciting prayers and hymns. During theſe two feſtivals, the people diſplay all their gaiety by dances and ſongs, the greater part of which are national, and partake ſomewhat of the climate."

Superſtition is a foible which the Swedes have in common with their neighbours, more or leſs according to education and circumſtances. The inhabitants of mountains and foreſts have many accounts of inviſible beings, which, however, partake leſs of the terrible than the romantic.

Preſervation againſt the cold winter, eſpecially neceſſary in the northern parts, is well underſtood. Peliſſes, clokes, great coats, caps, and boots, lined with fur, are of excellent uſe. "The greater part of the houſes are of wood; but when well conſtituted and kept in good repair, they are warmer than thoſe built of brick or ſtone; they likewiſe contract leſs moiſture, and are not apt to retain that nouriſher of cold. The ſeams of the windows are daubed over with pitch or cement, and double ones are ſometimes employed; but theſe are attended with a ſenſible inconvenience in winter, by rendering the apartments too dark. The ſtoves are conſtructed in ſuch a manner as is moſt ſuitable to the country; the tubes of them are ſo twiſted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too ſoon diſſipated: by means of a lever, the air may be condenſed, or rarefied at pleaſure. Wood here is not dear, and little care is employed to ſave it. The price of proviſions is equally moderate but the caſe is not the ſame with labour and objects of luxury."

The lower claſſes of people live principally upon hard rye bread, ſalted and dried fiſh, milk, peas, cabbage, turnips, &c. with a proportion of pork, beef, ſalted mutton, and goat's fleſh, butter and cheeſe. Beer is their common beverage, and very cheap. The tables of the opulent are covered with a variety of meat, freſh fiſh, wild fowl, and made diſhes, often to an exceſs of luxurious refinement. The conſump-

tion of wine is very great in Sweden. The uſe of tea, coffee, and chocolate, is every day extended more and more.

The Swedes have a national dreſs adopted in 1777, with the laudable deſign of repreſſing luxury in the article of clothes. The men wear a cloſe coat, very wide breeches, ſtrings in their ſhoes, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloke. But the great body of yeomanry, who have no need of this regulation, dreſs at option, in their neat ſimplicity. Their general competency is greatly owing to contempt of tyrannic faſhions. They partake, however, of the national taſte for plate; many poor cottagers have their ſmall ſilver cups; eaſy farmers diſplay a variety of plate; opulent families, both in towns and the country, have very ſplendid ſilver ſervices.

The ſeveral provinces preſent various ſhades of the general character, manners and cuſtoms; but our limits only permit a ſketch of the Dalecarlians. "Under a rigorous ſky, amidſt mountains covered with ſnow, during eight months of the year, they accuſtom themſelves to the ſevereſt labours, and fear no fatigue. Like the rocks which ſurround them, they brave every attack; proud and intrepid, as all mountaineers are, they deteſt ſlavery, reſiſt oppreſſion; and attached to their manners and cuſtoms, they tranſmit them unchanged from generation to generation. Short coats, all black or white, a long beard, and an uncouth but nervous dialect, diſtinguiſhed them from the other inhabitants of Sweden. Placed upon an ungrateful and barren ſoil, they have often no other nouriſhment than bread, compoſed of the coarſeſt meal, mixed with the bark of trees, gruel, ſeaſoned only with water and ſalt, or dried fiſh. Theſe people emigrate, in great numbers, to ſeek for a maintenance in the more opulent provinces, and above all in the capital; they are employed in public as well as in private works: and in whatever they undertake, they ſhow as much intelligence as honeſty. While they are abſent from their native country, they obſerve the ſtricteſt economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to ſave enough to enable them to return, and to ſupply their wants, which are not numerous." Their open integrity has ſometimes been abuſed by leaders of a criminal ambition; but their object, even in revolts, was always to ſupport the rights of the nation. In great dangers, they have been a national bulwark Under the banners of Guſtavus Vaſa, they delivered Sweden from a foreign yoke. In the alarming criſis of 1789, their generous valour ſupported Guſtavus III. againſt a powerful combination of external foes, and internal traitors.

AGRICULTURE.] "In travelling through Sweden, one finds fields well cultivated and covered with rye, wheat, barley, and oats. Meadows not wanting, ſome of which are natural, others artificial; and they produce excellent graſs; but they can be mown only once. Vegetables of every kind are known and reared; potatoes grow in abundance, and the people begin to be fond of them. Proprietors of land who are in eaſy circumſtances, have orchards, kitchen gardens, hot beds, and green houſes, and diſplay on their tables cherries, pears, plumbs, and melons, which would do no diſhonour to the ſouthern countries." All the common fruit-trees will thrive in moſt of the provinces. The fine bergamot pear, and the high-flavoured Aſtracan apple ripen beyond the 61ſt. degree. As yet, however, large orchards are rare among the common farmers, but they riſe and extend very faſt.

"For ſome years paſt, the Swedes have applied with great ardour to the cultivation of hemp and flax; and on this account they import much leſs than before from other countries. Tobacco, ſo highly valued by all the people of the north, is alſo greatly eſteemed in Sweden; the fields in the neighbourhood of the capital, and of ſome other cities, are entirely covered with it. Bees, too, are not neglected, but the climate ſeems to be unfavourable for breeding them; and the Swedes, perhaps, have not ſufficiently ſtudied the care and attention which theſe uſeful inſects require in cold countries."

"The half of thoſe vaſt territories that compoſe Sweden, is occupied by foreſts, lakes, marſhes, rocks, and underwood. Rich proprietors, however, improve a great deal by blowing up rocks, clearing away woods, draining marſhes, and rooting up buſhes. By theſe means, fields and meadows increaſe every year, and induſtry makes new conqueſts over nature."

"The Swedes are well acquainted with the management of cattle, and do not neglect it. But their cattle are ſmall, as is the caſe in all the other northern regions: and they would be more ſo, were not the breed mended by a mixture with thoſe of other countries. They cannot feed on graſs for more than five or ſix months. During the reſt of the year, they are confined to their ſtalls, and coſt the proprietors a conſiderable ſum for their maintenance." The milk is, however, ſuperior to that of warm countries, and that of goats makes excellent cheeſe.

"Scania, Oſtrogothia, and Finland, ſeem to be the provinces moſt ſuſceptible of thoſe improvements in agriculture, which are eſſential to the ſubſiſtence of man. The ſoil and climate of Scania are the ſame as thoſe of the northern diſtricts of Germany: all kinds of grain ripen properly in that province: and the cattle attain to a greater ſize than in other parts of Sweden. Oſtrogothia is a delightful country, interſected with hills and lakes; its inhabitants are intelligent and active. Finland abounds with fertile plains and excellent paſtures; the ſoil there has yielded ſometimes twenty and thirty fold. In the northern part of it there are vaſt diſtricts, which the neareſt villages took poſſeſſion of, without a legal title, and which they could not turn to any advantage. Government, however, ordered them to be accurately ſurveyed, and having left to the ancient proprietors an extent proportioned to their means, converted the reſt into new farms, ſubject to new rents; but thoſe who poſſeſs them, are exempted from paying them for twelve years. Smoland ſupports itſelf by its paſtures. Upland, Sudermania, Weſtmania, and Nericia, have an ungrateful ſoil; but the induſtry of the inhabitants aſſiſts the efforts of nature, and for the moſt part procures them the neceſſaries of life. In other provinces, the inhabitants ſtruggle againſt obſtacles, ſometimes with ſucceſs, but often with great loſs; in ſome years, they are obliged to mix the roots and the bark of trees with the coarſe meal which they uſe."

The rapid increaſe of cultivation, which the late arrangements for permanent magazines, will, no doubt, in future ſecure ample ſupplies of grain. The illuſtrious ſociety, called patriotic, has made the promotion of agriculture in every branch a principal object. It diſtributes every year aids and honorary rewards to thoſe who improve their freeholds or tenures. Petty tenants, ſoldiers, labourers and dairy maids, partake of theſe: and ſuch is the ſpirit of honour among the pooreſt, that they value a ſilver-necklace, or an embroidered hatband, received in this way, more than weighty coin.

Manufactures.] The ſilk manufactures are indifferent. Thoſe that employ cotton and camel's hair, thrive better, and are ſomewhat benefited by the naturalization of the Angora goat.

"Since the Engliſh, Spaniſh and German breeds of ſheep have multiplied, and ſince the cultivation of flax and hemp has been extended, broad cloths, fine and coarſe linens, ſail cloth and cordage, have been manufactured with ſucceſs, and in conſiderable quantities. The produce of broad cloth manufactured in Sweden, may amount to 500,000 rix-dollars annually; Spain and Portugal furniſh wool, which muſt be mixed with that of the country. The fine Swediſh cloth is much eſteemed; it is generally uſed, and large quantities of it are exported, on account of the bounty, which is twelve per cent. when the cloth is exported to any country of Europe, and twenty five per cent. when exported to any other quarter of the globe. As the coarſe cloths are inferior in quality, and much dearer, they will

not, like fine clothes, defray the expenſe of labour, and the conſumption of them is much more limited. The peaſants manufacture thoſe woollen ſtuffs which they uſe for their dreſſes, and with which they clothe their ſoldiers. The peaſants alſo, and above all, thoſe of Weſtrogothia, Norland and Finland, manufacture the principal part of the linen cloths, which are exceedingly good and ſold at a moderate price. The country manufactures might be encouraged, in order to afford occupation to the inhabitants during the long winters, were the cities numerous enough, and ſufficiently populous. Adminiſtration has opened in the capital, and in ſome provinces, public workhouſes, deſtined for the relief of the poor, who are employed in manufacturing linen and thread. The overſeers are employed to diſpoſe of the work which they produce. There are paper manufactories in different parts of the kingdom; but they do not ſupply enough for daily conſumption. The Swedes are well acquainted with the art of dreſſing leather: conſiderable quantities are, however, imported from Ruſſia and England. The gloves of Scania are in great requeſt, and many of them are ſold in the neighbouring countries. A perſon has for ſome time been ſettled in the capital, who manufactures excellent Morocco. Sugar bake-houſes, ſalt works, ſtarch, powder, tobacco, and ſoap manufactories, together with oil mills, have been eſtabliſhed of late years. In the ports where the herrings are caught, innumerable hands are employed in extracting oil from them. The porcelain and ſtone ware of Marieberg and Rorſtrand, in the neighbourhood of the capital, are inferior in quality to thoſe of China and ſome countries of Europe. Glaſs-houſes have not yet attained to a high degree of perfection in Sweden: there is only one worthy of notice, which was eſtabliſhed in Finland by a very active and intelligent perſon. The Swedes make a reſpectable figure as gilders, goldſmiths, jewellers, and watchmakers; and they have applied, for ſome time past, and with conſiderable ſucceſs, to embroidery."

The mines are great ſources of riches. The furnaces and forges produce yearly 400,000 ſcheppund*, of which about 100,000 are afterwards brought to various degrees of refinement. "Anchors are forged in various places; but thoſe of Sœderfors are accounted the beſt. Iron guns, bombs, and grenades, are fabricated at Stafsjæ, Oker, and Finſpong; braſs guns are caſt at Stockholm: and fuſees, ſword-blades, carabines, and other inſtruments of deſtruction are made at Norkœping, Jœnkœping, and in the capital. Manufactories of iron plates, tin plate, ſteel, iron wire, nails, and various kinds of utenſils, have increaſed very much of late years. The city of Eſkilſtunr, in Sudermania, is remarkable for the manufactories of ſteel and caſt iron, which government have eſtabliſhed there. On this account, the city has obtained ſeveral privileges; and the workmen, who diſtinguiſh themſelves by their induſtry, receive eſtabliſhments according to their merit. There are ſeveral of them who diſplay great ingenuity, and whoſe works are almoſt as well finiſhed as thoſe of England."

The produce of the copper mines, of which that of Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, yields the greateſt part, in about 6000 ſchp. of pure metal. The manufactories of braſs and braſs wire, conſume annually 2000 ſchp. The reſt is exported, or converted into ſheets for coppering veſſels—into very thin plates for covering houſes—into various utenſils—and into coin. Saltpetre works are found in every province. Alum works, powder mills, with manufactories of vitriol and red lead, produce a ſurplus for exportation. Sweden has four or five ſilver mines; but the old one of Sahla in Weſtmania, is the principal, though it yields at preſent only 1500 or 2000 pounds per annum. The gold mine at Aedelfors in Smoland, produces only five or ſix thouſand ducates, which hardly defray the coſt of working.

* 71-2 Schp. make a ton.

INTERNAL AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.] "The waters, which waſh and interſect the kingdom, are of great utility for transporting the productions of the ſoil, and the fruits of induſtry, from one province or city to another. The Swedes have endeavoured to derive every advantage poſſible from theſe waters, by digging canals. The oldeſt of theſe, is that, which, by nine ſluices, joins lake Mælar, to lake Hielmar, near the city of Arboga, in Weſtminia. It was begun under Charles XI. and the breaches made in it by the hand of time have been lately repaired. A ſmall river which runs paſt Arboga, and throws itſelf into the Mælar, tended greatly to facilitate the junction of theſe two lakes. This canal has eſtabliſhed a regular trade between ſeveral provinces, and twelve cities, of which Stockholm, Upſal, Weſteros and Arboga, are the principal." The communication between the great lake Wenner and the Northern ſea, by the river of Gothia, would be very advantageous, if the obſtacles of the ſhoals and cataracts in it could be removed. The terrible falls of Trolhætta ſtill remain; but the new project of a canal along the banks of the river may prove ſucceſsful. Canals are alſo opened in Finland, which has peculiar need of them. "Several of its diſtricts are ſeparated by woods, marſhes, and rivers, which can be of no ſervice to navigation: but a plan has been lately formed, to drain theſe marſhes, to clear the woods, add to render the rivers navigable. The foundation of three new cities have alſo been laid. Theſe are Kuopio, Tammerfors, and Kaskœ.

"The highways, which have been formed in Sweden by the hands of men, are very broad and ſolid: the baſis of them conſiſts of rocks, ſtones, and gravel. Every one who poſſeſſes land, muſt contribute towards the ſupport of theſe roads, and repair them every year immediately before harveſt. An attempt has been made to eſtabliſh waggons between Stockholm and Scania. But thoſe who undertook to carry this plan into execution, found that it would not anſwer. The poſt for conveying letters was regulated under queen Chriſtina; it is conducted by a certain number of peaſants, who farm lands from the crown. Theſe lands are called Poſthemman. and in virtue of their deſtination, are exempted from many burdens. The mail may be often ſeen in the hands of a child, who, calmly ſeated on his horſe or cart, and fearing no danger, conveys it with perfect ſecurity from one place to another. This is a remarkable circumſtance, which does honour to the national character of the Swedes; for there are few countries in which the mail can be forwarded in this manner. When a conveyance cannot be had by water, it is made in winter on the ſnow, by means of a light ſledge, which is exceedingly commodious, and coſts very little. Ore, wood, and coals, are thus tranſported to the different forges; and the principal fairs are held in winter on account of this convenience."

The foreign commerce has increaſed rapidly of late years. "They carry it on entirely themſelves, and their flag is known on the moſt diſtant ſhores. Their veſſels, which are well built, are numerous, and procure them conſiderable gain for freight, and by coaſting voyages. By the act of navigation, publiſhed in 1738, foreign nanations cannot ſend to Sweden, in their own bottoms, but their own productions, or thoſe of their colonies; and they are ſubjected beſides to certain duties, which are not paid by the natives of the country.

"The mines, foreſts, and waters of Sweden furniſh the principal articles of exportation. It exports, one year with another, between 300, and 330,000 ſchp. of iron. Bar-iron, pig-iron, iron hoops, ſteel, wrought iron, cannons, and iron bullets, conſtitute this lucrative part of foreign commerce; the price of bar-iron is between five and ſix rix-dollars per ſchp. The Swedes have been apprehenſive of being out-rivalled by the Ruſſians in this branch; but the acknowledged ſuperiority of the Swediſh iron has always kept up its price, and the demand for it continues

to be very great." The copper, both in bars, plates, and ſheets, is alſo in great demand; as are braſs and ſteel.

"The iron and copper entered at the different ports of Sweden, in order to be exported, produced, from the year 1760 to 1779, the ſum of 46,152,962 rix-dollars. The Swedes export annually about 150,000 dozen of planks; 2,474 dozen of joiſts; 4,150 beams; 97,000 tons of pitch and tar; and 4,000 tons of wood-aſhes and pot-aſhes. The exportation of herrings amounts, one year with another, to 160,000 barrels; that of herring oil increaſes more and more, and brings an annual gain of five or ſix thouſand rix dollars. The articles of re-exportation are not very numerous: the moſt important are furniſhed by the Eaſt India company.

"If Sweden poſſeſſes many objects of exportation, thoſe which it imports are equally numerous. Some of theſe are abſolutely neceſſary; but others of them are ſought for only in conſequence of thoſe factitious wants created by luxury, which are daily increaſing in every country of the world. Sweden imports ſometimes 500,000 barrels of grain; it has occaſion alſo for 280,000 barrels of ſalt one year with another; and it expends immenſe ſums for wines, ſtuffs, leather, tallow, hemp, ſugar, coffee, tea, tobacco, and other articles of proviſion. It has been proved by the cuſtom-houſe regiſters, that the corn, coffee, tea and tobacco, annually imported, coſt more than a million of rix-dollars.

Sweden imports "hemp, tallow, hides, corn, and ſeveral other objects which Ruſſia, Courland, Pruſſia, and the northern parts of Germany poſſeſs in abundance: but the iron, copper, ſteel, lime-ſtone, alum, and herrings which it gives in return, are not equivalent in value to the articles it receives: there is always a balance againſt it of 150 or 200,000 rix-dollars. With Denmark and Norway it gains; but this gain is abſorbed by the contraband trade carried on near the frontiers of the latter. The commerce of Sweden, on the German and Weſtern oceans, extends to Holland, England, France, Spain and Portugal. The Dutch furniſh it with ſpiceries, tobacco, colours and paper; and in return take iron, and ſome other productions; but in too ſmall quantities to leave a balance in its favour. Sweden ſends to the ports of France, iron, ſteel, copper, braſs, iron and braſs wire, planks and pitch, and brings back wine, ſalt, coarſe ſugar and fruit."

"From England it procures lead, tin, leather, beer, butter, cheeſe, and coals, to the amount of 100,000 rix-dollars all together: in return, it ſells to the Engliſh, iron, copper, pitch, planks, and herrings, to the value of almoſt a million of rix-dollars; ſo that it derives a profit from this trade ſufficient to compenſate it for ſeveral loſſes. It gains conſiderably alſo by Spain and Portugal, which do not pay with the ſalt, wines, and wool purchaſed in their ports by the Swedes, for the iron, cannon, copper, planks, nails and pitch, which in return they take from Sweden.

"The Swediſh ſhips frequent alſo the Mediterranean. They carry to Italy and the Levant the principal articles which they export, above all, artillery; and bring back ſalt, fruit, ſpiceries, cotton, and cotton and linen cloth: in ſuch voyages they bring great profit to their owners for freight.

"A new Eaſt India company has been formed, which obtained a charter for twenty years, and, like the former, engaged to pay 12,500 rix-dollars to government. Foreigners, as well as natives, may purchaſe a ſhare in this company: they receive every neceſſary ſecurity.

"The Swediſh veſſels which perform the voyage to China, are generally of four hundred laſts burden; they carry one hundred and fifty men, and draw 300,000 piaſtres at Cadiz. Theſe veſſels carry out ſome of the productions of Sweden, and return richly laden with tea, coffee, ſilk, porcelain, and cotton ſtuffs. Theſe

articles, however, do not all remain in the country: the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the Danes purchaſe the greater part of them; and, one year with another, the company draw from foreign nations above a million of rix dollars for the merchandiſe they import in their veſſels. This is their trueſt gain, and the real advantage which the kingdom derives from its trade to the Eaſt Indies.

The acquiſition of the iſland of St. Bartholomew gave riſe to a Weſt India company. Its charter is dated October 31, 1786: it pays nothing to the crown, and forms a fund by ſubſcription. The iſland of St. Bartholomew has a governor, and a garriſon: a council, of which the governor is chief, has been alſo eſtabliſhed there, to ſecond the operations of this riſing company. In the year 1774, a company was formed for carrying on the whale fiſhery: it ſtill ſubſiſts, but in ſuch a languiſhing condition, that it will be a work of difficulty to revive it: active and powerful rivals will always raiſe up obſtacles and fetter its efforts.

Principal cities.] Sweden, on a territory much larger than that of France, contains only 105 cities; many of theſe are ſmall; and the interior diſtricts of the North have none. This indicates a want of induſtry; but not in the degree that many would infer; becauſe the moſt neceſſary mechanics are ſettled in every pariſh; and the greater number of country labourers and farmers practiſe ſeveral trades with conſiderable ingenuity. It is a proverb, that *the Swedes are born ſmiths and carpenters*. Nor is real poverty common in the uncultivated parts; becauſe the few inhabitants have extenſive paſtures, with plenty of fiſh, game and peltry. A cottager, on the borders of Lapland, can, at pleaſure, feaſt on a fine pike, or ſalmon, and pretty often on a keder, orre, or hierpe*. The Swedes alſo love a country life; and many gentlemen reſide conſtantly on their eſtates; hence magnificent ſeats are often found in the neigbourhood of inconſiderable towns.

Stockholm‖, the metropolis, built upon ſeven high iſlands, between the Baltic and the lake Mælar, ſurrounded by mountains, woods, and gardens, exhibits views equally ſtriking and delightful. Its circumference is thirteen miles; and it has 80,000 inhabitants. Among the principal edifices are the nobility's hall, the city hotel, the exchange, the bank, and the theatre of the national opera. Some of the churches make a fine appearance, and have precious paintings, ſilver veſſels, organs, bells, &c. The royal palace conſiſts of a large ſquare, with two wings, and ſtands upon an eminence that commands a view of the whole city; the interior part diſplays great elegance and taſte. This city has for 400 years been the ſeat of government, and gradually becomes the centre of all its branches. The ſeveral boards of chancery, commerce, treaſury, war, admiralty, &c, are eſtabliſhed here, with the national bank, the mint, the academy of ſciences, and other illuſtrious inſtitutions. The diets alſo aſſemble here. Theſe advantages, with its central and maritime ſituation, have made it the firſt commercial place in the kingdom. "The trade of Stockholm employs ſix or ſeven hundred veſſels. The harbour, though the avenues to it are rendered difficult by innumerable rocks and iſlands, poſſeſſes great advantages: ſhips there find themſelves in the heart of the city. The cuſtom houſe is ſituated cloſe to it, and veſſels can be unloaded with the greateſt facility." Spacious warehouſes, filled with principal articles of exportation, and piles of beams, planks, rafters, &c. touch the ſea, on one ſide, and the lake on the other.

Gottenburg is the next in rank, both in trade, and in population, which is eſtimated at 18,000. This city, ſituated between the Baltic and the northern ſea, has this advantage over the capital, that its port is ſeldom ſhut up by the ice. Theſe two ports are ſaid to divide one half of all the national exports, in the proportion of five to

* These birds are reſpectively the ſize of turkeys, common fowl, and pheaſants.
‖ Long. 18 9 E. Lat. 59 20 N.

two. "A great many Engliſhmen, Germans, and Dutchmen, have ſettled at Gottenburg, under the auſpices of civil and religious liberty. The trade carried on in this city employs from five to ſix hundred veſſels; the moſt conſiderable article which it exports, is herring oil. As the Eaſt India company have their offices and warehouſes at this place, it enjoys the principal profit of every thriving branch of commerce.

"Norkœping, in Oſtrogothia, has an excellent harbour, exports a great deal of braſs, and diſperſes throughout the ſouthern provinces ſeveral neceſſary articles, which its veſſels bring from France and other countries." It contains nine thouſand inhabitants, and carries on great manufactures in braſs, copper, arms, cloth, &c.

Obo, the capital of Finland, has a population of nine thouſand, with a conſiderable trade in the produce of that country. One of the national univerſities and ſupreme courts are alſo eſtabliſhed there. Gefle is the beſt city in Norland, and contains ſix thouſand people.

In the ſouth, theſe are moſt remarkable for population and wealth—Carlſcrona, with 9000 inhabitants; Calmar, Lund, Landſcrona, Malmo, Chriſtianſtadt, with 5000. In the weſt, Fahlun, with 7000; Weſterohs, nearly as populous; Chriſtinahamn and Wenerſborg, are worthy of notice. Upſala, diſtant fifty miles from Stockholm, is well known for its univerſity, has a ſtately caſtle, the largeſt cathedral church in the country, and the ſee of the archbiſhop.

Thoſe of the Swediſh towns, which are not maritime, enjoy, a few excepted, a pleaſant ſituation on ſome lake or river.

Of the German territory, Stralſund is the capital. It is a commercial city, with 11,000 inhabitants.

Language.] "The language ſpoken by the Swedes is little cultivated in other countries; but it deſerves to be better known. It is characteriſed by force and energy: and though it has not that ſoftneſs and flexibility, which are found in other languages, they are not, however, incompatible with its genius." It has a great affinity with the Saxon part of the Engliſh, with fewer words of Latin origin. Though it is leſs copious it has a clearer tone, by a better mixture of vowels, and by their more determined ſound; which alſo makes the pronunciation more eaſy. The late profeſſor Ihre has diſplayed the analogy and etymology of his mother tongue, in the Gloſſarium Sweo-Gothicum, a maſter-piece of erudition and criticiſm. Other writers have followed his example. The principal object of the Swediſh academy, lately founded, is to improve the language. It intends to publiſh a dictionary and a grammar.

"There is in Sweden, as in all other countries, a variety of dialects: that of Scania has ſuch an affinity to the Daniſh, as ſufficiently ſhows that province to have been long ſubject to Denmark; that of Dalecarlia differs widely from the Swediſh, properly ſo called; it has the rough energy of the ancient Gothic. It is even pretended, that, in the moſt remote diſtricts of Dalecarlia, the inhabitants ſtill make uſe of Runic characters." The Fins and Laplanders have each a particular language, and there is a great ſimilarity between them. "Ihre pretends that theſe two languages, originally very little different, were prevalent in Scandinavia, before the arrival of Oden and the Goths. This aſſertion he ſupports by the teſtimony of ſeveral Icelandic hiſtorians; and he beſides quotes ſome words, ſtill preſerved in the Swediſh language, the origin of which cannot be found but in thoſe of Finland and Lapland. A Finland biſhop, named Juſlenius, has favoured the literary world with a Finlandic and Latin dictionary, and Mr. Oerling, a native of Lapland, has lately publiſhed one, Laplandic, Swediſh, and Latin, accompanied with the Laplandic grammer of Mr. Lindahl."

Public education.] Nearly all the Swedes can read, and the greater part write,

All the towns, and ſome parts of the country, have ſchools, in which arithmetic with the elements of geography, and hiſtory, are taught, without the toil of dead languages, needleſs in the common walks of induſtry. The pooreſt children receive a religious and moral education from parochial ſchoolmaſters and the clergy; of which the rudiments are taught in a general catechiſm, fraught with excellent practical rules. They alſo learn muſic from the national hymn book, which has many good compoſitions, with fine melody. "Convinced that public education has influence in the moſt direct manner over public felicity, government have eſtabliſhed a commiſſion for the expreſs purpoſe of bringing to perfection ſo important an object. This commiſſion ſits at Stockholm. There is alſo in that capital a ſociety for the improvement of education, who publiſh elementary books, and other uſeful works. This ſociety was firſt eſtabliſhed by Mr. Gœvell, librarian to the king."

Religion.] The Swedes commenced chriſtians in the ninth century. Lutheraniſm was introduced early in the ſixteenth, and finally eſtabliſhed in 1593, by the ſynod of Upſal. The reformation was not attended in Sweden with the tumults and perſecutions of ſome countries; becauſe it was gradual, and preſerved many agreeable rites of the catholic church, ſuch as choral muſic, ſtatutes, pictures, and many other church ornaments. How very limited religious toleration is even at preſent, may be ſeen from the following decree of the ſtates in 1778:

"Since the free exerciſe of religion, granted to thoſe who eſtabliſh themſelves in the kingdom, is conſiſtent with that toleration, which does honour to humanity, and which is at preſent introduced into almoſt all well-regulated ſtates, we are of opinion, that as this toleration may be uſeful to Sweden, in many reſpects, it is neceſſary to adopt it among us, but with ſuch exceptions as prudence, and the fundamental laws of the kingdom, equally preſcribe. Having taken this matter into conſideration, we decree, that the free exerciſe of religion ſhall be granted in Sweden, under the following conditions:

"I. That the people of a foreign religion who wiſh to ſettle in Sweden, ſhall not be permitted to hold any office under government.

"II. That they ſhall not open public ſchools, for the purpoſe of teaching their doctrine.

"III. That they ſhall not ſend miſſionaries either into the kingdom or out of it.

"IV. That they ſhall not be permitted to found convents, of any ſect whatever.

"V. That the Jews ſhall open no ſynagogues but at Stockholm, and a few more principal cities of the kingdom, where a watchful eye may be kept over them.

"VI. That they ſhall make no public proceſſions, for fear of offending the weak.

"VII. Such Swedes as abandon their religion, ſhall be proceeded againſt according to the laws of the country.*"

As yet, few of the Swedes incline to ſchiſm, from theſe cauſes—the national religion is warm, but mild and eaſy; public worſhip is ceremonious and agreable; the clergy are generally faithful paſtors, and mix with their flock in ſocial enjoyments: the church is neither proud nor opulent, the prelates aſſuming no title of lordſhip, and the other miniſters having various degrees of decent competency, without luxury or abject poverty.

Learning.] Scholaſtic erudition was cultivated in the two paſt centuries,

* "Banishment, and a loss of all civil privileges, is the punishment prescribed by the law in such cases." We are not certain how far the press is free for religious subjects.

and during the preſent, great progreſs is made in the ſciences and polite literature. The fame of Linnæus will remain while natural hiſtory ſhall find votaries. This great man adored the Supreme being, and was ſo ſtrongly impreſſed with the idea of omnipreſence, that he wrote over the door of his ſtudy, "*innocui vivite, numen adeſt.*" Among his many worthy diſciples are Solander, Haſſelquiſt, Bergius, Thunberg, Sparrman, Schwarz, &c. Mineralogy and chemiſtry have been greatly improved by Wallerius, Bergman, Cronſtedt; experimental philoſophy by Schele and Wilke; aſtronomy, mechanics, and natural philoſophy by Polhem, Klingenſtierna, Celſius, Stroemer, Wargentin, and Melanderhielm; political economy by Berk, Kryger, and Fiſcherſtroem; medicine by Roſenſtein, Acrell, Daxely, &c. Dalin, Botin, and Lagerbring are celebrated national hiſtorians. The hiſtory of Guſtavus I. and that of Eric XIV. by biſhop Celſius, are inſtructive and pleaſing. A hiſtory of Guſtavus Adolphus, by Mr. Hallenberg, is now probably publiſhed; the author undertook it by order of the late king. The geography of Sweden by Tuneld, of which the fifth edition is in preſs, is very much eſteemed. The above Dalin, (who was tutor of Guſtavus III.) the counts of Creutz and Gyllenborg, with madame Nordenflytcht, were diſtinguiſhed poets: Kellgren, Klevberg, Leopold, Lidner, Sjoeberg, and count Oxenſtierna, occupy a diſtinguiſhed rank among thoſe of the preſent day. Thoſe who well underſtand the language, acknowledge that ſeveral pieces in every branch of poetry rival the beſt in any other country.

Some fine ſpecimens of eloquence have been delivered in the Swediſh diets, the univerſities, and academies. Taſte in devices and emblems is much cultivated; as appears in the treatiſe of Sahlſtead on this ſubject. As a journaliſt, Mr. Gjoervell, librarian to the late king, has great merit: he has publiſhed many volumes.

The Swediſh academy of ſciences at Stockholm directs its attention to the moſt uſeful enquiries in medicine, natural hiſtory, mathematics, and political economy: ſince its inſtitution in 1738, many volumes have been publiſhed. The academy of belles-lettres, hiſtory, and antiquities, was founded by Louiſa Ulrica. Her ſon the late king, founded in 1786, another academy for the culture of the language, with penſions and funds for annual prizes. Other literary ſocieties are formed at Upſala, Gottenburg, &c. and a phyſiographical one at Lund.

Architecture flouriſhes in the improved provinces: foreigners of taſte are ſurpriſed to find ſo many ſtately edifices in a country ſo near the pole. Sweden has ſome excellent painters and ſculptors. The Swediſh theatre is of late much improved both in compoſers and actors: but its pleaſures are confined to the greater cities. The whole nation have a taſte for muſic: it is very generally taught: the common people have ſome ſimple but pleaſing inſtruments, with many martial and pathetic ſongs, in the ſtyle of Oſſian.

Upſala has long been the firſt ſeminary in the north. Its library, botanical garden, obſervatory, economical theatre, and chemical elaboratory, are worthy of notice. The profeſſors are about twenty: among them are teachers of political economy, the national conſtitution and laws, and of agriculture. Maſters of languages, and the fine arts, are alſo on the eſtabliſhment, with a good riding ſchool. The number of ſtudents is ſix hundred. Obo and Lund are the other two univerſities. Beſides theſe, there are fourteen colleges, and a great number of claſſical ſchools. All the ſeminaries of learning, with the above mentioned common ſchools, are ſupported by the public, which extends to a plain education to the pooreſt claſſes, and a learned one to all who can afford to attend at half yearly terms; even this is facilitated at the univerſities by certain funds. By theſe means, indigent young men of talents frequently riſe to very eminent ſtations in ſociety.

The royal libraries at Stockholm and Drottningholm, are well ſtored with excellent works. The cabinets of natural hiſtory at the latter place, at Upſala, and that

of the academy of ſciences, are very valuable. Mr. Carleſon has a muſeum containing eight hundred ſpecies of birds.

Civil and criminal laws.] "The civil and criminal laws of Sweden are more ageeable to the grand principles of reaſon, juſtice, and humanity, than thoſe of many other countries. The Roman law is taught in the univerſities, but only as an object of erudition, the knowledge of which may be uſeful to the lawyer: Beſides the obſcure and often the unintelligible decrees of Juſtinian and Theodoſius have no influence over the condition of the Swedes: they are condemned or acquitted by laws ſuited to their government. The latter were not dictated by deſpotiſm, amidſt the terror and conſternation of the people: they are the reſult of the deliberations of the national aſſembly." The Swediſh code of laws originated in the remoteſt era, and grew under various forms, with national circumſtances, till it obtained conſiderable perfection in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus, and ſtill greater in the year 1736, when the new code was publiſhed by the ſanction of the ſtates. A new edition, with ſalutary amendments, appeared in 1781. The brevity and preciſion of civil laws tend greatly to abridge and ſhorten law ſuits. The criminal laws diſplay a ſtriking character of humanity and juſtice. The puniſhment of death is in moſt caſes exchanged for heavy fines, whipping, and hard labour. Criminals condemned to die, are generally beheaded. Very atrocious crimes are puniſhed with greater ſeverity; but of theſe there are few inſtances. Information againſt accomplices does not procure impunity. Imperfect proof cannot condemn. Seduced women no longer ſuffer the infamy of eccleſiaſtical puniſhment. Thoſe who murder their infants, are condemned to die, unleſs, on a minute examination, the crime admits extenuation. Guſtavus III. aboliſhed torture in the beginning of his reign. This barbarous and fatal practice had been tolerated as an abuſe, but never admitted into the criminal code.

Territorial judges, aſſiſted by twelve freeholders, adminiſter juſtice in the country. Cities and corporate towns have tribunals compoſed of burgomaſters and citizens: appeals from any of theſe are carried to the four ſupreme courts which are ſtationed in convenient places, and, when neceſſary, ſend ſome of their members to examine facts on the ſpot: theſe muſt confirm all ſentences of death. "Judges muſt ſtrictly follow the ſpirit of the laws; and they are forbidden, under pain of fine and diſmiſſion, to interpret them as intereſt or their paſſions may dictate: if, by ſuch a perverſion, they deprive a citizen of his honour or life, they are ſubjected to the ſame ſentence which they pronounced againſt him. Eſtabliſhed cuſtom may ſerve them as a guide; but only in caſes reſpecting which the code is entirely ſilent. The chancellor of the law is inveſted with the right of watching over the conduct of the judges, and of proſecuting them, if they act contrary to the duties of their office. On opening the tribunals, the judges aſſiſt at divine ſervice; and the miniſter at the altar reminds them, in a ſolemn manner, of the duties which they have to diſcharge.

"If it happens that a perſon of illuſtrious birth, or a whole body, is guilty of any offence againſt the king, the kingdom, or the crown, and if this offence cannot be tried by any of the ordinary tribunals, a tribunal of the kingdom is then eſtabliſhed, is which the king preſides, and in which the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages of the ſtate have a right to ſit. The chancellor of juſtice is advocate in behalf of the public, and the oldeſt of the ſecretaries of reviſion holds the book of precedents: while ſentence is pronouncing, the doors are always open.

"On viewing the public priſons of Sweden, one readily perceives the character of a government that liſtens to the voice of humanity, and diſtinguiſhes mankind from brutes. Several very ſalutary alterations might ſtill be made in theſe priſons; but it is a great deal, that thoſe who ſee them, find more reaſon to lament the

crimes of the perſons they contain, than the ſeverity of the treatment which theſe victims of corruption experience while they wait with anxiety for their ſentence."

The Swediſh laws of inheritance are remarkably wiſe and juſt; by their happy influence great inequality of property is prevented; and Sweden has a greater number of ſmall proprietors than any other country in Europe.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.] "Charles XI. when he mounted the throne, having deprived the nobles of thoſe crown lands which his predeceſſors had granted them, appropriated the greater part of this acquiſition for the ſupport of the army, and finiſhed the grand work of cantoning the troops, which had been begun under the reign of Charles IX.

"The crown lands, deſtined for the ſupport of the ſoldiers, are farmed out to individuals, who are bound to raiſe and maintain, at their own expenſe, a dragoon or a foot ſoldier. The land which furniſhes a dragoon with his horſe, is named *ruſt-holl*; and ſeveral portions of land, united to furniſh a foot ſoldier, are called *rote*: ſeveral are neceſſary, becauſe they are much ſmaller than thoſe which are obliged to raiſe the cavalry. The ſoldier receives from the farmer a houſe ſurrounded by a piece of ground; this is what is called a *boſtelle*: he receives alſo a certain quantity of proviſions, a ſum of money, and a ſuit of clothes, made of a coarſe cloth, which is renewed every three years. He is not obliged to perform any labour; and if the farmer wiſhes to employ him, he muſt pay him ſeparate wages. Military men, above the rank of a common ſoldier, from a ſergeant to a colonel, are maintained in a different manner: government gives them a houſe, or *boſtelle*, with a piece of ground of a certain extent: ſets apart lands for their uſe, the farmers of which are obliged to ſupply them with proviſions and forage, and they have alſo an appointment in money, but it is exceedingly ſmall. To complete the maintenance of the army, the ſtate furniſhes the common ſoldier with an uniform, which he wears at reviews and on ſome other occaſions: it provides him alſo with arms, and in time of war allows him pay extraordinary.

"The troops, thus divided, aſſemble in bodies, more or leſs frequently according to circumſtances; but they are exerciſed at fixed periods. They conſtitute the real military force of the kingdom, and are in number as follows:

Twenty-three regiments of infantry - - - - - -	24,000
Eight regiments of cavalry, comprehending the ſtandard of the nobility	7,400
Five bodies of dragoons - - - - - -	3,400
	34,800

The eſtabliſhment formed by Charles XI. confirmed by his ſucceſſors, and ſanctioned by the ſtates, is in ſome reſpects advantageous, and in others not. The national army of Sweden will with difficulty acquire that ſkill in military exerciſes, and be accuſtomed to that routine of tactics, and that rigid and exact diſcipline, which diſtinguiſh the regular troops of other countries. As often as it marches againſt the enemy, it will leave a vacuum in the kingdom, fatal to agriculture: but it ſaves conſiderable ſums to the ſtate. In the time of peace, it is of real utility, and it muſt be ſuſceptible of that fire of patriotiſm which can never warm the breaſt of the mercenary who traffics in blood. The Swediſh ſoldier is a citizen, who braves dangers to defend that country in which he has left a wife, children, and a habitation dear to his heart.

Beſides this national army, Sweden has always a body of troops, raiſed and maintained on the footing of foreigners. Their number is as follows:

Nine regiments of infantry	9,000
Two regiments of cavalry	800
Artillery	2,900
	12,700

The country is guarded by a ſufficient number of ſtrong fortreſſes. Gottenburg, Warberg, and Bohus, are the barriers towards Norway; towards the ſound in Scania, there are Malmoe, Chriſtianſtadt, and Landſcrona: Louiſa and Sweaberg, are the barriers againſt Ruſſia. Waxholm and Fredericsburg defend the port of Stockholm. There are arſenals in all the fortreſſes. "That of Stockholm contains a great number of trophies taken from the enemies of the kingdom, at thoſe periods when the Swedes ſought nothing but battle, and never quitted the field except when crowned with the laurels of victory. Several pieces of the armour of the conqueror of Leipſic are alſo preſerved here, and that of the hero of Narva. In the hat worn by Charles XII. at Fredericſhall, the hole made by that fatal ball, which in a moment overturned all his vaſt projects, is ſtill to be ſeen.

The Swediſh fleet, created by Guſtavus I. had increaſed to thirty-eight ſhips of the line, when Charles XII. made a deſcent on Denmark. "When fortune deſerted the Swediſh hero, it decreaſed, and was even almoſt entirely ruined. After that unhappy epoch, government ſometimes turned their thoughts towards it, but never with any ſucceſs: Guſtavus III, however, has beſtowed the utmoſt attention on this important object; and the Swediſh navy is indebted to him for the flouriſhing ſtate in which it has been for ſome years paſt. Great abuſes prevailed in the management of it, and proper diſcipline was not kept up: but a reformation has been brought about in both theſe departments, by making better arrangements, and exerciſing the men oftener. As the greater part of the veſſels were old and worm-eaten, they have been carefully inſpected, and thoſe unfit for ſervice have been replaced by new ones inſtructed according to the beſt principles of naval architecture. Twenty-four ſhips of the line, twelve frigates, and a ſuitable number of prames, brigantines, and ſhallops, compoſe the Swediſh navy. Veſſels of the firſt rate carry ſeventy guns, the reſt ſixty, and the greater part of the frigates forty.

"The coaſts of the Baltic are ſo filled with iſlands and rocks, that ſhips of the line cannot navigate them. About the middle of this century, a zealous citizen, general Ehrenſværd, propoſed to government to form a fleet of flat-bottomed veſſels, which might ſail on theſe ſhores with ſafety, and ſerve for diſembarking troops. This fleet called alſo the army fleet, on account of its utility for tranſportation, is divided between Stockholm and Sweaburg, and conſiſts of about ſixty flat-bottomed veſſels. Some of them are real galleys: the reſt have the name of *tonroma*, and are conſtructed upon principles known to very few.

"Sweden procures its ſailors from the maritime provinces, and maintains them upon the ſame footing as the national land forces: their number lately has been increaſed to 15,000."

Mr. Chapman ſuperintends the building of ſhips of war: he has publiſhed ſome works which have been tranſlated into different languages.

A fund for decayed ſailors is formed by annual deductions from pay, and the grant of certain duties. Invalids in the land army have alſo ſmall penſions.

REVENUE, EXPENSE, DEBT, AND COIN.] The public revenues are of two kinds —one fixed and permanent, and the other granted for the time by the repreſentatives of the nation. The firſt ariſes chiefly from the crown lands, taxes upon lands, mines, and forges, cuſtoms and exciſe, poſt duties, and ſtamps on paper, and a very general but ſmall poll-tax. Some of theſe impoſts are levied in money and

others in kind. When the wants of the public are increaſed by particular circumſtances, the ſtates aſſemble, and grant certain ſubſidies for a limited time. Theſe are principally levied on the produce of agriculture, induſtry, commerce, profits of offices, and ſome other perſonal reſources, in the following manner: "in cities, the magiſtrate appoints a certain number of principal citizens, who bind themſelves by oath to tax the inhabitants, according to regiſters given them by the commiſſaries of the diſtrict. In the country, the governor of the province, in concert with the territorial judge, chooſes three perſons among the nobility, clergy, and peaſants, who tax the different bailiwicks to which they belong; and if theſe officers cannot agree, the deciſion of their diſpute is referred to their conſtituents."

The collectors and receivers of all taxes, both regular and extraordinary, are, by various modes, under ſuch a controul, that frauds are hardly practicable, and if committed, ſeverely puniſhed. To ſcreen the poor from oppreſſion, abatement and indulgence for a certain time is alſo granted.

All the public revenues do not exceed four millions of rix-dollars. This would be inadequate to the yearly expenditure, if the army was not principally ſupported in the manner above-mentioned. The church is likewiſe maintained by the glebes and direct contributions in kind. The ſeminaries of learning and ſeveral civil departments are ſupported in a ſimilar way.

Thoſe who know the economy of Sweden, muſt admire its regularity: no country is more free from the leeches of penſions and ſinecures.

Nevertheleſs, it has been in debt ever ſince the twenty years war under Charles the XIIth. The three wars ſince 1742, with ſeveral unfavourable ſeaſons, have increaſed this debt to twenty-nine millions of rix-dollars; but peace and induſtry will ſoon clear a country that has ſuch good reſources.

Exceſs of paper money had cauſed great miſchief during twenty years: the ſolid coin was hoarded or exported: ſelfiſh ſpeculators gained by the continual fluctuation of prices and the foreign exchange: the ſtate and individual ſuffered much by the depreciation of their fixed revenues. When a ſenſe of theſe evils prompted a quick appreciation, ſtagnation in the general circulation, and ruin of debtors enſued. But in 1777, a judicious realization of the paper took place; and ſilver, with national bank notes, form a ſure medium.

"The money uſed in Sweden is:

"The gold ducat, worth one rix-dollar, 46 ſchilling.

"The ſilver rix-dollar, of 48 ſchil. an imaginary coin of ſix dalr. of ſilver or 18 dalr. of copper, alſo imaginary money: the value of two thirds, one-third, one-twelfth, and one twenty-fourth of a rix-dollar is in proportion.

"The copper enkel ſlant, or ſimple ſtiver, or 3 runſtykens, or œre.

"The double ſlant, or double ſtiver of 6 runſt. or œre.

"The œre, or runſtyken, 12 of which make a ſchilling."

One pound ſterling is worth four rix-dollars 15 ſh. with caſual variation of exchange.

GOVERNMENT.] Sweden had in the remoteſt ages a monarch, a ſenate, and ſtates, with all the convulſive variations of a barbarous ſtate. During the union of Calmar, deſpotiſm and anarchy reigned by turns. Guſtavus I. checked the ambition of the great, and expelled foreign tyrants. Guſtavus Adolphus, his grandſon, improved on the foundation: the act of aſſurance which he delivered to the repreſentatives of the nation when he mounted the throne, is ſtillpreſerved. That prince promiſed to maintain the Lutheran religion; to deliberate with the ſtates on the alteration to be made in the laws, on the taxes to be impoſed, on the political alliances to be formed, on the wars to be undertaken, and on the treaties of peace to be concluded. He engaged, beſides, to preſerve to the four orders, their privileges, and

to inflict no punishment, but after a legal process. The long series of bloody wars rendered military services necessary; and they were rewarded with titles of nobility and crown lands. This, with the unjust liberalities of Christian, contributed to aggrandize the noble order. Charles XI. reclaimed those donations with too great rigour; but with a wise economy appropriated them for the support of the army. On the death of Charles XII. that absolute sovereignty which had subsisted nearly forty years, was succeeded all of a sudden, and too rapidly, by a liberty almost without bounds.

"The supreme power was now in the heads of the states, who altered the laws, declared war, made peace, concluded alliances, and disposed of the army according to their own pleasure. They likewise imposed taxes, fixed the value of money, assembled every three years, whether convoked or not, and never terminated the diet until they thought proper. The senate was responsible to them for its conduct; and the king had no power of introducing into that body, but one of the three subjects proposed to him. Nothing, therefore, remained to the sovereign but the executive power, and the right of appointing to the different offices. Both these privileges were abridged at the diet of 1756; and the states proceeded so far, as to furnish the senate with a royal seal, to be employed whenever the king should refuse to sign.

"The court, however, had partisans who undertook to avenge its cause. The count Brahe, the first nobleman in the kingdom, and descended from the family of Vasa, the count Hord, and baron Horn, were at the head of this enterprise. Arms were collected; sailors had been engaged; and the signal was about to be given, when the states received information of their design. Count Hord betook himself to flight; but count Brahe, trusting to his birth, his rank, and the remonstrances of the court; remained, and was conducted to prison. All those who were suspected shared the same fate. Being brought to trial before a tribunal the members of which were both judges and accusers, hatred and animosity pronounced the sentence of death. Count Brahe, baron Horn, and three others, were publickly beheaded, in the capital, opposite to the church of Ridderholm, while the king's guards attended to preserve good order.

"Thus did the party of the *hats*, which at that time prevailed, manifest its zeal for liberty more fatal than useful to the nation. The influence of the king was too much weakened, and the equilibrium of the different powers had disappeared; liberty was unacquainted with the restraint of clear and permament laws; and the interest of the people were not concentered in one focus, the welfare of the public. The factions, that of the *hats*, and that of the *caps*, the one supported by France, and the other by England and Russia, triumphed in turns, according to the abilities of their chiefs. The court wavered between these two factions, neither of which favoured it; and the diets were like theatres in which opposite passions contended. During these debates, disorder prevailed in the administration, and the national virtues lost all their energy. One diet overturned what another had wisely established; and the Swedes, naturally tractable, honest, and loyal, acquired a spirit of intrigue, venality, and revolt."

Such was the state of the kingdom when Gustavus III. assumed the sceptre, and the next year, 1772, effected an astonishing revolution, which was accomplished in three days, and without a drop of blood. Opinions are widely different on this and similar events, but it is generally agreed, that a very great majority of the nation, wearied of a miserable anarchy, sighed for an energetic government; that the greater part attached to monarchy by principle or habit, had great confidence in the splendid abilities and virtues of Gustavus, and that his lenity to his most implacable foes was beyond example.

The conſtitution by him offered, and received by the ſtates, who were aſſembled at the time, is a high-toned monarchy, but not at all abſolute. The ſtates retained the excluſive power of granting ſupplies. Their conſent is neceſſary for enacting or abrogating laws, for altering the value of the coin, and for making offenſive war. They are ſole truſtees, guarantees, and managers of the national bank. They examine, at every diet, by a committee, the ſtate of the finances, in order, (as the 50th article is worded) to be convinced, that the public money has been expended for the good of the country.

Beſides, the crown has few means of corruption, becauſe the principal branches of public revenue are appropriated to permanent objects; and becauſe all offices both civil and military (thoſe of confidence excepted) are held during good behaviour.

The neceſſity of a ſtrong executive power to defend the country againſt a league between powerful foes and formidable malecontents, prompted the diet of 1789 to make the following alterations in the conſtitution. The king can make offenſive war. The ſenate is aboliſhed. The ſupreme tribunal of juſtice, where the king preſides with only two votes, muſt conſiſt both of commoners and nobles. Commoners have an equal right to all civil and military offices, and to the acquirement of thoſe privileged landed eſtates, called *ſaterier*. Theſe articles, with others, are ſet forth in the act of union and ſafety.

The ſtates of Sweden are repreſented by the four orders of the nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants, (or, more properly, yeomen.) The eldeſt ſon of each family ſits in the diet, under the name of *caput familiae*. The clergy chooſe deputies in proportion to the number of pariſhes. The biſhops and other prelates ſit in the ſame houſe with them, and have only ſimple votes. The burghers of the reſpective cities and towns chooſe repreſentatives in proportion to population and wealth: thus, Stockholm has ten. The freeholders in the country elect in a ſimilar manner, according to the value of the reſpective diſtricts.

The four orders have ſeparate houſes: the deciſions of their majorities reſpectively form their votes: and the conſent of three houſes decides upon all affairs merely national; but cannot violate the conſtitutional rights of a diſſentient order.

POLITICAL INTEREST.] The gigantic power of Ruſſia is a formidable neighbour to Sweden. It may attempt acquiſitions in Finland, not ſo much for extending an immenſe territory, as for gaining a wider ſhore on the Baltic. It may alſo take advantage of thoſe diſſentions ſo natural in free ſtates. Yet while the Swedes preſerve a patriotic union, and their old valour, they will be ſafe: the rocks and waters of the frontiers make a tolerable barrier; and in caſe of need, the regular army would be aided by an hundred thouſand militia. Since Denmark has no further hope of recovering its loſt provinces, its true intereſt is a good neighbourſhip.

As a maritime power, Sweden will ſupport its commercial independence. On this principle, it formed, in concert with Ruſſia and Denmark, the armed neutrality in the late war between Great Britain and the united States of America. Its occaſional treaties with diſtant powers, will principally have in view the balance of power in Europe, and eſpecially in the north: this accounts for its connexion with the Ottoman empire, as the Aſiatic neighbour of Ruſſia.

HISTORY.] The ancient Goths, joined with other northern ſwarms, ſubdued the Roman empire in Europe: the kingdom of the Eaſt Goths in Italy, laſted ſixty, and that of the Weſt Goths in Spain three hundred years. A little before the chriſtian era, Sigge, afterwards called Oden, from the north-eaſt of Aſia, conquered the then inhabited part of Sweden, and erected an empire, of which Upſala was for many centuries the political and hierarchic ſeat. The provincial governors were, however,

generally tributary princes; frequently at war with each other, and againſt the upper king as he was ſtyled. The remoter and larger provinces were not incorporated before the eleventh century. Birger Farl, regent of the kingdom, founded Stockholm in 1252. Magnus, a ſon of this excellent man, eſtabliſhed ſalutary laws, reſtrained the pride of the grandees, and was greatly beloved by the people: he acquired the ſurname of *Ladulas*, (or barn lock) becauſe his juſt and vigorous adminiſtration ſecured their property.

After many conteſts with Denmark, an union of three northern crowns was effected by Margaret; but her ſucceſſors treated the Swedes with injuſtice, and often with cruelty; being frequently aided by traitors among the nobility, and the prelates, whoſe wealth and power had become exorbitant in the progreſs of chriſtianity. After many ſtruggles againſt combined tyrants, with various ſucceſs, the unfortunate Swedes experienced all the horrors of ſlavery, from the monſter Chriſtian, who in a paroxyſm of rage maſſacred two hundred of the principal men in Stockholm, Nov. 8, 1520.

Guſtavus Vaſa eſcaped from innumerable dangers into the mountains of Dalecarlia, and by his perſuaſive eloquence, rouſed the patriotic valour of the inhabitants. Supported by them and other brave Swedes, who flocked to his banners, he defeated the Danes, and expelled them from every part of the kingdom. "For this ſervice the ſtates appointed him regent in 1521, and king in 1523. The union of Calmar was diſſolved forever, and Sweden recovered its independence. The new monarch preſerved the ſenate and the four orders, whom he aſſembled on important occaſions. He diſtinguiſhed his reign by an ardent and enlightened zeal for the proſperity of the ſtate. Agriculture and commerce began to flouriſh, a navy was formed, and public ſchools were opened in the different provinces, while the introduction of Lutheraniſm repreſſed the power of the clergy, and increaſed the influence of the crown. Intereſt and ambition, unable to gratify their private views on account of the firmneſs and vigilance of the king, excited new revolts; but Guſtavus quelled them and cauſed the ſceptre to be declared hereditary in his family, in 1544. He died in 1560, and left behind him the reputation of a great man.

"Guſtavus was ſucceeded by his youngeſt ſon, Eric XIV. who did not poſſeſs the ſame qualities as his father. This monarch became a prey to a brutal kind of melancholy, which occaſioned his ruin. His brother John eaſily ſupplanted a prince who had embrued his hands in the blood of his ſubjects, and who was conſidered as the ſcourge of the kingdom. Eric, therefore, was depoſed, and being thrown into priſon, was there poiſoned by order of John. Such are the dreadful exceſſes to which princes may be hurried by politics and ambition. John had married Catharine Jagellon, whom he loved and conſulted. This princeſs had great influence in the council; and being a zealous ſupporter of the catholic religion, which ſhe profeſſed, ſhe prevailed upon her huſband to render Sweden once more dependent on the holy ſee. Lutheraniſm, however, had taken too deep root; and the efforts which the king made to deſtroy it, tended only to eſtabliſh it the more. John died in 1572, very little regretted, becauſe he was unworthy of the eſteem of his ſubjects. His ſon Sigiſmund, already king of Poland, ought to have ſucceeded him; but he conſulted the Poliſh monks too much, and followed their advice too ſcrupulouſly: the Swedes dreaded the civil and religious yoke, which Poland was about to impoſe on them, and began to manifeſt their fear. Charles, duke of Sudermania, the youngeſt of Guſtavus's ſons, taking advantage of the diſpoſition in which the people then were, cauſed himſelf to be elected regent of the kingdom. Sigiſmund undertook to conquer Sweden; but the duke defeated his army, and after-

wards mounted the throne. The reign of this prince was ſevere and often cruel. Charles was harſh, ſanguinary and violent: he died during a paroxiſm of paſſion."

Guſtavus Adolphus ſucceeded him in 1611. He was equally great in peace and war, and "ſhowed himſelf a model for heroes and kings. At this period, Sweden was engaged in a war with Denmark, Ruſſia, and Poland. A peace was concluded with the two firſt of theſe powers, and a truce with the latter; but immediately after, glory and religion conducted Guſtavus Adolphus to Germany. His army though not numerous, was brave, inured to war, well diſciplined, and full of confidence in their chief. Tilly loſt his laurels at the battle of Leipſic, which Guſtavus gained in 1631; and Wallenſtein was defeated at Lutzen the year following: but the king periſhed in the bloody conteſt by the hand of a traitor. The proteſtants in Germany ſhed tears for their protector, while the *Te Deum* was chanted at Rome."

Chriſtina was very young at her father's death; but Oxenſtierna directed the Swediſh affairs in Germany with ſo much wiſdom, and the military talents of Weimer, Baner, Horn, Torſtenſon, and Wrangel, were ſo ſucceſsful, that Sweden obtained conſiderable acquiſitions by the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1643, and had a principal ſhare in ſettling the political ſyſtem of Europe. Chriſtina had a romantic taſte for claſſical erudition and the fine arts, but ſhe laviſhed the public treaſury upon favourites, and quitted her throne, her country, and her religion in 1654.

Charles Guſtavus, her couſin, became her ſucceſſor. His reign was ſhort; and ſplendidly warlike. "Caſimir, king of Poland, having diſputed his right to the crown of Sweden, Charles marched an army againſt him, fought a battle near Warſaw, which continued three days, and ſaw the haughty Polanders tremble before him. The king of Denmark in the mean time having declared war againſt Sweden, the conqueror was obliged to evacuate Poland, and to oppoſe a new enemy. He led his ſmall army acroſs the Leſſer Belt on the ice, took poſſeſſion of the greater part of Denmark, and in 1658 obtained the peace of Roſchild, by which ſeveral provinces were ceded to Sweden. Alarmed at ſuch ſignal ſucceſs, all the northern powers took up arms againſt this kingdom; and the emperor, Ruſſia, and the elector of Brandenberg, joined its enemies. Charles, however, laid ſiege to Copenhagen; but being repulſed, death ſoon after put an end to his career. He died ſuddenly in 1660, at Gottenburg, where he wiſhed to aſſemble the ſtates."

His ſon Charles XI. was then only five years of age. The regency appointed by the ſtates, concluded immediately a general peace at Oliva. This king had a ſhort rupture with Brandenberg, and fought ſeveral battles with Denmark, in which, though but twenty years old, he diſplayed great military ſkill and proweſs. He gained the affection of the inferior orders, triumphed over the nobility, and became abſolute ſovereign in 1680. Though naturally auſtere and exceeding the bounds of juſtice in recovering the crown lands from the nobility, he was wiſe, economical, fond of peace, and very active: he promoted induſtry and commerce, reformed the laws, placed the military ſyſtem in excellent order, and made his kingdom very reſpectable in the balance of Europe.

He died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the ambitious Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this deſtroyer. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He oppoſed them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at

the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus, king of Poland; raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705; and was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. But he loſt, in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks afterwards found it convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. After his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon ſhot, at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericſhall, but by a piſtol*, from one of thoſe about him. Charles was temperate, ſober, chaſte, and faithful in his promiſes, but his obſtinacy and want of prudence were fatal to Sweden.

When the ſtates aſſembled, they decreed the crown to his ſiſter Ulrica Eleonora, on condition of renouncing the ſovereignty; but by her requeſt, transferred it to her husband Frederic, landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, who renounced ſeveral more of the royal prerogatives. In 1721, a general peace was obtained by ceding Livonia, Ingria, Eſtonia, with parts of Finland and Carelia, to Ruſſia; Bremen and Verdun to Hanover, part of Pomerania to Pruſſia; and ſubmitting to the general duties of the ſound exacted by Denmark. Sweden had begun to repair theſe loſſes by the arts of peace, when party-ſpirit, roufed by national antipathy and French intrigues, cauſed the unfortunate war with Ruſſia in 1741, by which another part of Finland was loſt.

On the death of Frederic in 1751, Adolphus Frederic mounted the throne, with Louiſa Ulrica of Pruſſia. In 1756, Sweden was again, by the ruling faction, made a party of the league againſt Pruſſia; and was obliged to make peace in 1762, after great expenſe, and loſs of troops by ſickneſs. Adolphus died ſuddenly in 1771. He was a pattern of domeſtic virtues, but unequal to the taſk of ruling between turbulent parties.

Guſtavus III. his ſon, with indefatigable care, carried a reforming hand through all the departments of public adminiſtration: the civil and criminal code were eſſentially improved; and judges were taught, by exemplary corrections, to reſpect the rights of the loweſt of their fellow-citizens. The army was diſciplined and better provided for: the navy roſe from its long decay: paper was changed into ſolid coin: the nation recovered its independence and reputation. By frequent, and often unexpected viſits through his extenſive country, he could ſee, hear, and feel its wants. His leiſure hours were not waſted in the lap of luxury, or in the ferocious chaſe, but employed in cultivating the belles-lettres and the fine arts; of which he was a connoiſſeur, and a liberal patron. All this, with graceful manners, and an amiable affability, made him for ſeveral years excedingly popular. But clouds began to

* The reader, who is desirous of seeing the arguments on both sides of this question, which could not with propriety be given in detail in this concise narrative, will be highly gratified by consulting Coxe's travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. 4to. vol. ii. p. 351—363.

obſcure this bright horizon of Sweden. Some diſcontent aroſe among the people from the monopoly of the domeſtic diſtilleries, which the king aſſumed. A deſire of reſtraining the pernicious exceſs in ſpiritous liquors, and of increaſing the public revenue, induced him to adopt a meaſure which infringed perſonal rights, and did not in practice prove beneficial. He liſtened, however, to the public murmurs, and reſtored the unlimited freedom of private ſtills, on condition of a temporary and very moderate tribute in grain; to which he obtained the people's free conſent by commiſſioners in the ſeveral counties. The nobility, whoſe political weight (as being hereditary) was moſt leſſened by the revolution, were irritated afreſh in the diet of 1778, by the king's reviving the ancient diviſion of their houſe into claſſes; according to which, every individual was to vote within his claſs, and the plurality of claſſes to conſtitute the vote of the houſe. During the diet of 1786, a decided oppoſition was formed. Of the four propoſitions offered by the king, that only of a fund for public granaries was accepted: the ſtates were ſo economical, that they would not even relieve their fellow-citizens who worked the copper mines, with loans, as had formerly been the practice.

The war with Ruſſia, which broke out ſoon after, ripened theſe ſeeds of diſcord. The campaign was no ſooner opened in Finland, than a great part of the officers refuſed to ſerve, under pretence that Sweden had not been attacked; and entered into a negociation with the court of Russia. "The king, finding that he could not depend upon his troops, quitted Finland, and having traverſed ſeveral of the northern and weſtern provinces of Sweden, harangued the Dalecarlians on the ſame ſpot where Guſtavus I. addreſſed them when he had recourſe to their valour to deliver his country from a foreign yoke. Theſe brave mountaineers offered to raiſe, at their own expence, a body of troops whom his majeſty might diſpoſe of as he thought proper. Every heart was touched by the eloquence of the Swediſh monarch; and the people every where declared in his favour. Setting out for Gottenburg, he arrived there when the Danes were about to beſiege it; but his preſence revived the courage of the inhabitants, and the project of the enemy miſcarried. In the mean while, the troops who remained at Stockholm, had orders to march towards Gottenburg; and the defence of the capital, the caſtle, and the royal family, was entruſted to the care of the citizens." A truce and a final peace in the next ſpring was effected with Denmark, by the mediation of the Pruſſian and Britiſh miniſters.

The diet met on the 26th of January, 1789. The three orders manifeſted a warm attachment to the king; but a great majority of the nobles behaved with inſolent obſtinacy. On the 17th of February, the four orders were convoked in the hall of the ſtates and the king delivered a diſcourſe full of energy: he lamented, that a tyrannic ariſtocracy, which he had cruſhed in 1772, ſhould again threaten deſtruction to Sweden; drew a lively contraſt between the fidelity of the inferior orders, who ſupported him with their lives and fortunes, and the treacherous ingratitude of thoſe nobles, who, forgetful of their country's kindneſs, and his peculiar favours, baſely endeavoured to humble the monarch by ruining the nation; he knew thoſe who wiſhed to ſee a Ruſſian envoy dictating the terms of peace in Stockholm; but was determined rather to periſh than ſign one article offenſive to Swediſh honour; he vowed that thoſe raſh hands which attempted his father's crown, ſhould never wreſt from him that ſceptre which he had inherited from Guſtavus Adolphus, and which he would tranſmit, if not equally ſplendid, yet pure to his ſucceſſor on the Swediſh throne; finally, he warned them of that puniſhment from God and their country, which a wicked perſeverance would provoke. The nobles perſiſting in their oppoſition, and the other orders having, by a formal deputation, petitioned the king to take effectual meaſures for the public ſafety, orders where given, on the

20th, to arreſt fourteen of the principal nobles; among them count Ferſen, who, before the revolution, had long been the chief of the faction, ſtyled the Hats: they were confined in the palace of Frederickſhof, till the cloſe of the diet in the following March, but well accomodated.

After this the act of union and ſafety was ratified by the king and the three orders; but the houſe of nobles refuſed their aſſent, pretending that it was a violation of the conſtitution, and of their privileges.

The war having now received the national ſanction, was carried on with vigour. Moſt of the officers returned to their duty; patriotic aids were collected over the whole country, and reſpectable bodies of volunteers prepared for emergencies. The ſucceſs did not, however, correſpond with the ſanguine hopes of the Swedes, from the following cauſes. The Ruſſians, numerous, hardy, warlike, and well diſciplined, fought under ſkilful commanders: the Swediſh ſtores of proviſion and ammunition were at firſt deficient through the neglect of thoſe concerned: great opportunities were loſt by the defection of the officers, and by the precarious dependence on ſome afterwards. The principal advantage was, a recovery of military reputation, which had ſuffered in the former war of 1742. A very ſevere action happened in the month of July, 1788, between the two grand fleets (in the gulph of Finland,) the Swediſh, commanded by the duke of Sudermania, and the Ruſſian, by admiral Greig: both admirals were applauded by their ſovereigns; great ſlaughter took place on both ſides; each took one ſhip from the other; and the Ruſſians had one ſunk: night put an end to the battle. Of the engagement in 1789, the moſt remarkable was one in which the king defeated a large detachment of the Russian army. In 1790, the duke attacked the ſtrong harbour of Revel, in which were nine or ten Russian men of war, but loſt two of his ſhips. He then joined the king who had with the galley fleet gone up into the bay of Wibourg. The whole Russian fleet came to lock them in; the Swedes with great bravery forced their way back, but loſt ſix or ſeven ſhips of the line, two by catching fire from the ketches ſent to burn the Russian fleet, and the others by ſtanding on the ſandbanks in that narrow paſs. This critical misfortune could not be repaired without a ſtroke of deciſive boldneſs: he therefore with his ſhore fleet attacked that of Russia under count Naſſau: a dreadful battle enſued, and continued, with a ſhort pauſe at midnight, for twenty-four hours. The Swediſh took or deſtroyed about forty veſſels, of galleys, xebecs, brigantines, and ſmall frigates, carrying among them 600 cannon; and made ſix or ſeven thouſand priſoners. The king expoſed himſelf during the whole action with the greateſt intrepidity, going a conſtant round of the moſt dangerous ſcenes. This memorable victory was obtained on the firſt of Auguſt in Svenſkſund, and procured an immediate peace.

In thē beginning of 1792, a diet was held at Gefle, of which the principal object was to reſtore the national finances, much deranged by the war. The three orders were as uſual, complaiſant; but a majority of the nobles diſplayed the old ſpirit.

After the diet, the king returned to Stockholm, and ſoon fell a victim to an atrocious conſpiracy, the extent and whole deſign of which, is not known; but ſeveral particulars are authenticated by the acts of the judicial proceſs. Fifteen of twenty perſons were convicted; moſt of them noblemen: the principal actors were baron Beilke, who poiſoned himſelf; the counts Horn and Ribbing, the lieutenant colonel Liljehorn, and captain Ankarſtorm. This laſt was the aſſaſſin: he ſhot the king with a piſtol charged with ſlugs and nails, at a maſquerade, on the night of the ſixteenth of March.

Guſtavus bore this cataſtrophe with his uſual fortitude; and, under agonizing pains, preſerved that ſerenity and ſtrength of mind neceſſary for making his laſt

diſpoſitions. He alſo took a ſolemn promiſe from his brother, to treat his murderers with all possible lenity, and not by any means to give up more than one to capital juſtice. He expreſſed exemplary ſentiments of devotion; comforted his diſconſolate friends; and after the laſt valediction to the queen and prince, died on the 29th of the ſame month.

The talents and virtues of Guſtavus are univerſally acknowledged. His political conduct can be fairly judged only by thoſe who know the affairs of Sweden. It is certain, that his death cauſed a general grief; that the common people regard him as a martyr in vindication of their rights; that many diſtinguiſhed noblemen were his confidential friends; and that ſeveral of that order whoſe oppoſition was manly and ſpirited, would have defended him with their blood.*

Guſtavus III. was born the 24th of January, 1746, ſucceeded his father in 1771, was married to Sophia Magdalena, princeſs of Denmark, the 4th of November 1766. Their only heir, Guſtavus Adolphus, now minor king of Sweden, was born in November 1778. He received an excellent education under the king's direction; of which he gave early proofs on his examination before the ſtates, at the diet of 1786: it will be completed under his uncle.

Charles, duke of Sudermania, appointed by the late king, his brother, regent of Sweden, was born 1748. His adminiſtration has been perfectly worthy of the high truſt repoſed in him. His military virtues were ſeen in the laſt war: an anecdote relating to this may be mentioned. In the action with admiral Greig, his ſhip was for ſome time ſurrounded by three of the largeſt Ruſſian ſhips; ſome of his people making a motion to ſtrike, he ſaid, "No; I had rather be blown up than taken priſoner; and ſnatching the match from one of the gunners, took his ſtation by the powder-magazine.

NAME, ARMS, AND KING'S TITLES.] The Swediſh name of the country is Sverige, or Swea Rike. "The arms of Sweden are a ſhield, divided into four compartments, and having a ſmall ſhield over it. The firſt and ſecond compartments contain three rivers, which a lion with a golden crown is endeavouring to paſs; the other two compartments contain two gold crowns, which belong properly to Sweden: the lion belongs to the kingdom of Gothland."

The king's titles are, king of Sweden, of the Goths and the Vandals, heir of Norway, &c.

Orders of knighthood are: that of Seraphim, confined to princes, and thoſe who by extraordinary ſervices, riſe to the firſt offices of the ſtate; of the polar ſtar, appropriated to civil merit; of the ſword, for military; and of Vaſa, inſtituted by the late king for the promotion of agriculture, mining, and commerce.—Its emblem is a ſheaf.

* The title is now the only diſtinction between the nobles and commoners: all civil rights are common: the order of nobles have only one voice of the four in legiſlation.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

Situation and extent of the Ruſſian empire in Europe.

Length 1 500 miles. } between { 98 and 140 deg. Eaſt longitude from Phil.
Breadth 1 100 } { 47 and 72 North latitude.

DIVISIONS AND NAME. ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of forty-two provinces or governments, which are comprehended again under nineteen general governments.* Carelia. Eſtonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine ſea, was ſubject to Turks formerly, but added, in the year 1783, to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban; alſo the duchy of Courland, and a great part of Lithuania in Poland.

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire. properly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Sweden in the preſent century; and alſo the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, for we muſt alſo include all the acquiſitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the eaſtern ocean; and on the north, from the frozen ocean to the forty-ſeventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and ſome unknown regions in Aſia.

The country now compriſed under the name of Ruſſia, or the Ruſſias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning to the table in the introduction, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

Ruſſian empire in Europe.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Greek church	Ruſſia or Muſcovy,	784,650	1160	1050	Moſcow.
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz.
	Don Coſſacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.
	Ukraine Coſſacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.
Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700.	Ruſſian Finland,	41,320	320	180	Wyburg.
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	Peters-burg. N. Lat. 60. E. Lon. 105, 25
		1,103,495			
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Crim. Tartary	8,200	160	115	Kaffa.
By the partition treaty between the emperor, Pruſſia & Ruſſia.	Lithuania in Poland, -	64,000	300	250	Grodno.
Ruſ. emp. in Aſia.					
Chriſtians and idolaters.	Muſcovy, Tartary, and Siberia, Kalm. Tartary.	2,200,000	3150	1500	Tobolſky.
		850,000	2100	750	Aſtrachan.
	Total	4,151,495			

* Zimmerman, p. 52.

Ruſſia has alſo been divided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.
1. Lapland,
2. Samoida,
3. Bellamorenſkey,
4. Meſeen,
5. Dwina,
6. Syrianes,
7. Permia,
8. Rubeninſky,
9. Blaeſeda

Middle Provin.
10. Rezan, or Pereſlaf,
11. Belozero,
12. Wologda,
13. Jeraſlaf,
14. Tweer,
15. Moſcow,
16. Belgorod,

East. Prov.
17. Bulgar,
18. Kaſan,
19. Tſcheremiſſi,
20. Little Novogrod,
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſt. Prov.
22. Great Novogrod,
23. Ruſſian Finland,
24. Kexholm,
25. Kaleria,
26. Ingria.

South. Prov.
27. Livonia,
28. Smolenſko,
29. Zernigof,
30. Seefſk,
31. Ukraine, or country of the Old Coſſacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Petersburg, has enumerated the following nations, as comprehended in this great empire:

The Mongouls,
The Kalmucs,
The Tartars,
The Samoides,
The Oſtiachs,
The Burattians,
The Jakuttians,
The Tunguſians,
The Voguls,
The Laplanders,
The Finns,
The Lettonians,
The Eſtonians,
The Lieffs,
The Ingrians,
The Tſcheremiſſes,
The Tſchouwasches,
The Mordvines,
The Votiacks,
The Terptyaireis,
The Tartars of Kaſan and Orenburg,
The Tartars of Tobolſk,
The Tartars of Tomſk,
The Nogayan Tartars,
The Tartars of the Ob,
The Tſchoulym Tartars
The Katſchintz Tartars,
The Teleutes,
The Abinzes,
The Biryouſſes,
The Coſſacs,
The Kurilians,
The Kiſtim and Tulibert Tartars,
The Vergho Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Sayan Tartars,
The Touralinzes,
The Bougharians,
The Baſchkirians,
The Meſtſcheraiks,
The Barabinzes,
The Kirkguiſians,
The Beltirians,
The Yakoutes
The Kamtſhatkadales.

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as diſtinct tribes than as diſtinct nations.

As to the names of Ruſſia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muscovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a great deverſity of ſoil, as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire.

The ſeverity of the climate in Russia, properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Russia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburg, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and

February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. "It is difficult," says Dr. King, "for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of cold so intense; when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice; but, even in that state, the beard is found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to supply their place. All parts of the face which are exposed, are liable to be frozen: though it has been often observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarkable, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water, thrown up in the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been found frozen in an hour and a half: but in this substance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy or spirits of wine. But notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means to guard against it, that they suffer much less than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they serve at the same time for the common people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly so warm, that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows of the huts of the poor, are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: in the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass frames. They can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer, with great exactness, opening and shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable, that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is excedingly piercing."

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate, is, the preserving provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by this means, they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, 830 miles, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are thus supplied

in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Russia, is by immerging them in cold water: for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden, but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Russia is pretty much the ſame as in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces incredible numbers of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Russia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were little acquainted with agriculture; and ſupplied the place of bread, as ſome inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh bones. Peter the great, and his ſucceſſors, down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its fertility in ſome provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Russia, as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The eaſy communication, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of the empire have with each other, ſerves to ſupply one province with thoſe products in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Russia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Russia is, in general, a flat, level country, except towards the north, where lie the *Zimnopoias* mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper, comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending to the Sea of Oral. And here we may obſerve that from Petersburg to Pekin, one ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Petersburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburg, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea: it is reckoned the largeſt, and one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe, produces many kinds of fiſh, and fertilizes the lands on each ſide with trees, fruits, and vegetables. In this long courſe, there is not one cataract to interrupt the navigation; but the nearer it approaches to the mouth, the river multiplies its number of iſles, and divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all theſe arms divide themſelves into

others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again; ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Russia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary and other countries bordering on the Caſpain ſea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia, in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar intended to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: all this grand project was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf, at Riga, into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiaga, and, dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White ſea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country, and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called chriſtians rather than pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire: it is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants: but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Russia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Russia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are ſmall, as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few birds in Russia, that has not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, only the Russians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga: the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon, it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga, the Russians make the famous cavear, ſo much eſteemed for richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-ſtone, concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior part of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. When it is taken from the fiſh, it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, the ſhape ſometimes oval, and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Russians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors of the population of this vaſt empire, the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurpriſing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Russia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire produced a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix

millions six hundred and forty-six thousand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to be taxed, including women and girls, we shall find near twenty millions of souls. The new register in 1764 contains 8,500,000 subject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer, resident some time in Russia, gives the following estimate:

Lower class of people paying capitation tax,	18,000,000
Conquered provinces,	1,200,000
Noble families,	60,000
Clergy,	100,000
Military,	360,000
Civil,	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Cossacs, &c.	350,000
	20,000,000

To these must now be added near a million more by the acquisition of the Crimea, and part of Cuban Tartary; and at least 1,500,000 in the provinces dismembered from Poland.

As her imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries from whence the swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is reason to believe that her dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present. Perhaps the introduction of the small-pox and the venereal disease may have assisted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of strong and spiritous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

The Russians, properly so called, are a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned probably by the snow, which for a long time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but in the war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks, they greatly distinguished themselves. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; they endure hardships with great patience, and can content themselves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the great, the Russians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness: no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers; and his account is corroborated by travellers who have lately visited Russia. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, treated little better than beasts of

burden, to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Ruſſians, before his time, had few ſhips upon their coaſts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent, a French or Engliſh gentleman may live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia, as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the accession of the preſent empreſs, have been put under proper regulations: and few of the ancient uſages remain. However, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among ſome ranks; and the bulk of the people are uncivilized.

The Ruſſians were noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This was the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid, that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſsive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated, if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is critically examined by a number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day, ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off, even among the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract.

Funerals.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for the ſoul, to purify the corpſe with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

Punishments.] The Ruſſians were remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which were both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death. The ſingle and double knout have been inflicted

upon ladies*, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders, and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; & even the late empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason: but there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed; for there are many felons who die under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines: so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorised by the laws. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the present empress.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei, Voloshok, and other places; but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nershink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greater part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves, and families.

* A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in Mons. l'Abbe Chappe D'Auteroche's journey into Siberia. "Mad. L'Apouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, then engaged in a conspiracy. This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in the conspiracy, was condemned, by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indiscretion, but not even the shadow of guilt: although I have been assured by every person of whom I have made enquiry, that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit: instead of the number of admirers her beauty usually drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloke which covered her bosom: her modesty taking the alarm, made her start back a few steps: she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground: the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the properest posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; sometimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose: he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye: and leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back: then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former: so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shift. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. In 1762, she was recalled from banishment by Peter III."

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expenſe very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes, either a reader or a ſtranger, more than the facility with which the Russians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, they travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the interior parts of Russia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, in February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo ſleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs: thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Petersburg and Moſcow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. As the preſent ſubjects of the Russian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformation introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they now make excellent ſoldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tcheremiſſes and Morduars, a peaceable, induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtrachan and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and, in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from her imperial majeſty, they ſerve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The Coſſacs, who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe, were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine as a militia againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaſka, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted of thirty-nine towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to Aſoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were ſo wedded to their original cuſtoms, that they were little better than nominal ſubjects of the czars till the time of Peter the great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Coſſacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as deſcribed by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nations chooſe a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he reſides at Circaſka; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a ſuperior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a ſeparate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is choſen annually. They ſerve in war, in conſideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have ſeveral times rebelled, for which they ſuffered ſeverely

under Peter I. But the Ruſſian yoke was ſo much eaſier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Coſſacs of the Ukraine put themſelves likewiſe under the protection of Ruſſia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their prince, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himſelf unable to fulfil the magnificent promiſes he had made to him. He brought over ſome of the Zaporavian Coſſacs who were ſettled about the falls of the river Nieper; but moſt of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the tartars of Kaſan, and of their deſcendants, are very uniform, and may ſerve for the characteriſtic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally ſtraight, and well made, have ſmall faces, with freſh complexions, and a ſprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty, and jealous of their honour, and of a very moderate capacity. They are ſober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatneſs. The Tartarian women are of a wholeſome complexion, rather than handſome, and of a good conſtitution: from their earlieſt infancy they are accuſtomed to labour, retirement, modeſty, and ſubmiſſion. The Tartars of Kaſan take great care of the education of their children. Their youth are accuſtomed to labour, to ſobriety, and to a ſtrict obſervance of the manners of their anceſtors. They are taught to read and write, and are inſtructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the ſmalleſt village has its chapel, ſchool, prieſt, and ſchool-maſter; though ſome of theſe prieſts and ſchool-maſters are not much ſkilled in the Arabic language. The beſt Tartarian academies in the Ruſſian empire are thoſe of Kaſan, Tobolſk, and Aſtrachan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high prieſts. It is not uncommon to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcript, even in the hut of the boors; and their merchants, beſides what theſe little libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory of their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates, with the antiquities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology, enter themſelves into the ſchools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades; and have ſome manufactures. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. Many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs. At Kaſan they prepare what we call Morocco leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Theſe villages were at firſt compoſed of troops of wandering ſhepherds; but being drawn gradually cloſer together by ſucceſſive population, they found themſelves under the neceſſity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow; for which reaſon they uſe more manure than the Ruſſians. They are much attached to the rearing of bees; many of them are perfect maſters of this part of rural economy, and derive great profit from it. Moſt of the villages contain tanners, ſhoemakers, tailors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters. The females, who are induſtrious, ſpin and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The moveables of theſe Tartars are, for the moſt part, only ſuch as are neceſſary to the real wants of life. Their catalogue of kitchen and table furniture is very ſhort; and they have but few utenſils of agriculture and mechanics. A cheſt or two, ſome carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches, that they uſe inſtead of beds, with a few chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be ſeen in their houſes; though

ſome of the principal people have ſtuffed cuſhions and pillows on their ſleeping benches. But chairs and tables are only ſeen in towns; and even there, never but in the houſes of ſuch as have buſineſs with foreigners. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench ſerves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themſelves round the diſhes, each perſon ſitting on his heels, after the oriental manner. They make ablutions, and ſay prayers, at the beginning and end of all their meals. The Tartars of Kaſan, as well as moſt of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite, both among one another, and towards ſtrangers. Old men, who maintain good characters, are held in great veneration among them; and a great beard is conſidered as naturally entitling a man to reſpect. They are fond of aſking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are generally the arbitrators in diſputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Aſtrachan are perfectly ſimilar to thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, and Bougharians; and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and make ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the chriſtian era in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

They *Votiaks*, a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viaitk, in the government of Kaſan. This nation was one of thoſe which were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but ſince it has been ſubjected to Ruſſia, it has preferred the quiet and ſecurity, which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdſmen and ſhepherds, and fixed habitations to their ancient tents. The Votiaks are of a middle ſtature, and generally red haired; they are honeſt, peaceable, and hoſpitable, but ſuperſtitious and very credulous. They are aſſiduous in rural economy, neglecting neither the rearing of bees, nor the chace; in the latter they uſe indifferently the bow or fire arms. In their leiſure hours, many of them employ themſelves in making all ſorts of turnery, ſuch as cups, ſpoons, and ſhuttles; and others varniſh all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in ſewing, and in making linen, coarſe cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the Votiaks are chriſtians; but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, whoſe deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. As theſe people divide themſelves into different flocks, or tribes, they chooſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe with other Finniſh nations. Theſe people have a ſingular cuſtom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the preſence of her father-in-law; nor is the ſon-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law, till his wife has had a child. They are idolaters; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after

death a happineſs at leaſt equal to that which they expect for themſelves. Whenever they kill one of theſe animals, they ſing ſongs over him, in which they aſk his pardon for the injury they have done him. They alſo hang up his ſkin, to which they ſhow many civilities, and pay many compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of ſpirits. Indeed it appears that bears are in great eſtimation among all the Pagan nations of the north, and north-eaſt.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, and have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. They are of a gay diſpoſition, honeſt, laborious, and acute; but ſlovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely paſſionate. Their women are well made, robuſt, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the uſe of letters, as well as ſome of their kindred nations: they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature, which they obſerve in their foreſts. They diſtinguiſh themſelves into tribes or races; and a Vogoul village is commonly compoſed only of one family, whoſe chief or elder performs the functions of ſtaroſte, or magiſtrate of the village: their principal occupation is the chace, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Niſchnei-Novogorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding-night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "among the Tſchouwaſches the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every "thing himſelf; and it is the duty of his wife to obey without reply; a cuſtom "calculated to prevent domeſtic broils. Accordingly, quarrels are very uncommon "in the families of the Tſchouwaſches."

The *Kerguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characterizes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp, but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, are affable, and high ſpirited; but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds which conſtitute their principal occupation. As their courſes are regulated by neceſſity, in ſummer they traverſe the northen deſerts, and in winter the ſouthern parts. It is when they have nothing elſe to do, that they follow hunting and fiſhing; and agriculture is abſolutely unknown to them. Their troops of cattle conſiſt of horſes, camels, cows, goats, and ſheep, which ſupply them with food and raiment. Camels are of great ſervice to them throughout their whole economy, carrying their huts and furniture at every change of ſtation, which they do to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The Kerguiſians dreſs in the eaſtern manner; but their clothes are for the moſt part better than thoſe worn by other Tartars. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to an exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are only diſtinguiſhed by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the number of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and ſlaves.

The Tunguſians form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, and well made: Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of

acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are inferior to ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their perambulations; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configuration of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame rout by ſuch a deſcription. They alſo diſcover the tracks of the game by the compreſſion of the the graſs or moſs. They learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The Kalmucs are a courageous tribe and numerous; for the moſt part rawboned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat, that the ſkull of a Kalmuc may eaſily be known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe and a ſhort chin, their complexion a reddiſh and yellowiſh brown. Their women are of a ſimilar ſhape with the men, and their ſkin a wholeſome white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and induſtrious. The character of this tribe is, rough, but leſs diſſolute than is commonly ſuppoſed. They are much attached to their chiefs or maſters; but are both thieviſh and dirty. In their robberies, they uſe more ſtratagem than violence; and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's ſpirits, are ſeldom guilty of murder. They are ſuperſtitious about good and bad days, and have written laws, which are founded on reaſon, cuſtom and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. Rape and adultery are puniſhed with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their ſpeech is a mongrel dialect, with many Tartarian words; but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The ſole profeſſion among them is the breeding of cattle; they purſue the chace as an amuſement: their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar* and the Ruſſians *kibitka*, and which much reſemble thoſe of the Kirguiſians: their clothing is oriental. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils: their principal food conſiſts of animals, tame and wild; even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of a diſtemper or age; ſo that in every hord the fleſh-market has the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion; they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſerts: they are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke almoſt continually: during the ſummer, they keep to the north, and in the winter to the ſouthern deſerts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The Kamtſchatkadales have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing: the chace furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. Their nets are made of the ſtamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fiſhing, they ſometimes employ themſelves in building huts, forming different wooden utenſils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: but much of their time is paſſed in abſolute idleneſs; for they are naturally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chace. They live in villages, conſiſting of a few ſmall houſes, and ſituated in general near ſome river. When a village becomes too populous, they ſeparate, and form a new village. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchatkadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country twenty dollars, or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchatkadales believed the immortality of the ſoul before they embraced the chriſtian religion.

They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance, and extremely ſingular in the enjoyments of life, particularly in their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European cuſtoms and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expenſe. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia, and hither ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. They deny the pope's ſupremacy, and diſclaim image worſhip. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly; an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for their ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops and other eccleſiaſtics, but not their ſecular prieſts, to live in celibacy. Peter the great declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordination of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixd income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſession of all their ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. This is now in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk, til he is turned of thirty; and of no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors. The preſent empreſs has annexed the church-lands to the crown, and in return grants penſions to the higher clergy and the monks.

The conquered provinces retain the exerciſe of their religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them not better than pagans, in Siberia, and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

Language.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, and the moſt learned of their clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and thoſe who know that language in its purity, find no difficulty in underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Russians have at preſent thirty letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

Learning and learned men.] The Russians hitherto have made but an incodſiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary eſtabliſhments, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings have been favourably received all over Europe: eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtro-

nomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire, ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed at Petersburg and Moſcow, are an evidence, that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. Many of the Greek and Latin classics have been tranſlated by natives into the Ruſſian language. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter I. but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz: but, under Peter, it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and hath continued ever ſince, to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter I. at Moſcow; one for classical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries, who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter I. has founded an univerſity in this city. The preſent empreſs has alſo founded an univerſity at Petersburg, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned, to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools, for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution of the moſt benevolent tendency, which, if rightly executed, will entitle Catharine, as much as any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Russian nation.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.] Petersburg naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed, that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between the lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into a minute deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, and commerce, that is to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empreſs's expenſe; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life; and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money, as a dowry, if they marry, or to procure to themſelves a proper livelihood, if otherwiſe. Near this convent is a foundling hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmoſt attention to her, ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time, is ſurpriſing. In winter, 3000 one horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed that there are above 130,000 in-

habitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt; which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is ſufficient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are many country-houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be near 26 miles, in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three ſquares. The merchants' exchange contains about ſix thouſand fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palaces, pleaſure-houſes, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt or covered with ſilver: the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper, double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. The ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazines, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can only be equalled by what is ſeen at Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow, at the time he was building Petersburg; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the preſent empreſs, and is ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpoſe there are different

ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves: a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permission of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was twelve miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes was computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants were ſaid to amount to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms this account of the circumference of the city; but thinks the ſtatement of its population much exagerated; according to an account which was given him by an Engliſh gentleman, which he received from the lieutenant of the police, and which he ſays may be relied on, Moſcow contains within the ramparts 250,000 ſouls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns: particularly the canals made by Peter the great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Petersburg is a rhinoceros, dug up in the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it perfect. The Russians have a great passion for bell ringing; and we are told, that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs, according to Mr. Coxe," 432,000 pounds, and exceeds in bigneſs every bell in the known world. Its ſize is ſo enormous, that I could ſcarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myſelf, and aſcertained its dimenſions with great exactneſs. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards, eleven inches, its greateſt thickneſs twenty-three inches." It was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large peace is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce, in his late memoirs, mentions abell at Moſcow, founded in czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, and two in thickneſs, that weighted 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raiſing it from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburg, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed, for ſome years, 300,000 men in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day: a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon at all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME FORCE. In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about ten millions of dollars, and her imports do not exceed ſix millions five hundred thouſand, ſo that the balance of trade is yearly three millions five hundred thouſand dollars in her favour*.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz.

* See Coxe's travels, vol. II. p. 247.

furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, ising-glass, linseed oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train oil, hogs' bristles, musk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, also raw silk from China and Persia. Her foreign commerce is much increased, since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishment of her new emporium of Petersburg, whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire; the best corn, hemp, flax, honey and wax, come from this fertile province; and ten thousand horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, silk, cotton, gold &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins and ready money; and also to the annual fair at Samarcand: she likewise trades to Persia by Astrachan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk. The empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have lately been annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherson, Sebastopolis, Theodosia, (formerly Caffa) in the province of Taurica, as in Petersburg.

Before the time of Peter I. Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. They have now thirteen ports, Archangel, Petersburg, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Fredericsham, Astrachan, Kola, and the three opened in their new conquests. Archangel is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth; it is built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of its trade by the building of Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandize. The mast and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the forests of Kasan, which border on the province of Astrachan.

The present state of their navy, according to a late list, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 109 galleys, 10 proams, from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, seven pinks, &c. 15,000 sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships, or in the dock yards. The harbour is at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large bason will contain near 600 sail of ships.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTIONS OF RANK. The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic, and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects; who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life on the public works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. When persons of any rank are banished into Siberia, their possessions are confiscated; and a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier. The secret court of chancery, which was a tribunal composed of a few ministers, chosen by the sovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all the subjects at their mercy; but this court was suppressed by Peter III.

The system of civil laws at present established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not

adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the empreſs has lately made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws, for which ſhe hath given inſtructions, will ſoon be produced, to increaſe the people's liberty, ſecurity, and felicity.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the preſent and late empreſs have introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility which are common to the reſt of Europe.

Revenue and expenses.] The revenues of this mighty empire are, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were, even under Peter I. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially the preſent empreſs, have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling, annually. Thus computed:

	Rueles.
Capitation tax,	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties,	7,000,000
Her own eſtates, with dominions taken from the clergy,	6,000,000
Produce of the mines,	1,500,000
Monopoly of diſtilled liquors,	4,000,000
Monopoly of ſalt,	1,800,000
	28,800,000

The deficiency of the ſum total may be eaſily made up by the profit ariſing from ſtamp-paper, patents, poſt-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, beſides *one* per cent. which every Ruſſian merchant is obliged to pay on his yearly capital.

When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in England, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. The other expenſes beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, are very conſiderable. By the peace eſtabliſhment in 1778, the regular troops amounted to about 130,000 effective men. The irregular troops are numerous, but conſiſt of horſe; and of this deſultory body, the corps of the Coſſacs are eſteemed the moſt excellent. The court of the empreſs is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid, and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſts her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expenſes of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary.

in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter I. was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his excessive power. The clergy are taxed in Russia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Russian armies are raiſed at little or no expenſe; and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to ſeven dollars, yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found in proviſions when aſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew*, or the blue riband, was inſtituted by Peter I. in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in the wars againſt the Turks. He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The badge is the image of St. Andrew on the croſs, enamelled on an imperial eagle. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki**, or the red riband, was alſo inſtituted by Peter I. and confirmed by the empreſs Catharine I. in the year 1725: the enſign of the order is a croſs pattee, enamelled red, and edged with gold; the centre enamelled white, and thereon St. Alexander on horſeback. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter I. in honour of his empreſs, for her aſſiſtance on the banks of the Pruth. He declared her ſovereign of it; and though both ſexes were at firſt admitted, yet it is now appropriated to the fair alone, and to perſons of the firſt diſtinction in Europe: the badge is a medallion enriched with diamonds, and charged with the image of St. Catharine, pendant to a broad white riband, worn ſaſhwiſe over the right ſhoulder: on the left ſide of the ſtomacher is embroidered a ſilver ſtar of three points, on the centre of which is a croſs. The order of St. *George* was inſtituted in 1769 by the preſent empreſs, Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The badge is a golden croſs enamelled white, on the centre of which is a medallion, with the figure of St. George killing the dragon: this is worn pendant to a black riband, ſtriped and edged with yellow. The order is divided into four claſſes; the firſt is confined to commanders in chief. The order of St. *Wolodomir* was inſtituted in October 1782, by the empreſs, in favour of thoſe who ſerve her in a civil capacity, and nearly on the ſame plan as the order of St. George: there are ten great croſſes of it, twenty of the ſecond claſs, thirty of the third, and ſixty of the fourth, beſides a fifth claſs for thoſe who have ſerved in a civil employment thirty five years, which entitles them to wear it. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter I. was introduced into Ruſſia by Peter III. and is in the diſpoſal of the great duke, as ſovereign of Holſtein.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent, were formerly rich and populous. The reader, who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In latter times, the Aſiatic part of Russia bordered on Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and

* Alexander, ſon of the great duke Yaroslaf, was of diſtinguiſhed abilities: he defeated the Tartars, Swedes, &c. and wounded the king of Sweden with his own hand, on the bank of the Neva: from whence his appellation of Newski: he died in 1262.

powerful empire, than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain, than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the ninth century; but they have a tradition current, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 1430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time, the chief or ruler had the title of grand-duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princeſs of this country called Olha, is ſaid to have been baptized at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops aſſumed the title of patriarchs, and were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubject and tributary to the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Ivan Baſilides conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is ſaid to have carried three hundred cart loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign, of above forty years, gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtrachan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. He gave to his ſubjects the firſt code of laws, introduced printing, and promoted commerce. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſtonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of tzar, or, as we call it, czar, (an expreſſion, which in the Sclavonian language ſignifies *king*) was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak, cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, whoſe ſiſter Irene was married to the czar Feodor, according to Voltaire, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the thone. A young monk aſſumed the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him) he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſtor was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him; and he was murdered. If we except the unjuſtifiable means by which Boris raiſed himſelf to the throne, and his ambition and revenge, he muſt be eſteemed an excellent ſovereign, and his loſs was ſenſibly felt: driven to deſpair, he ſwallowed poiſon in the ninth year of his reign, 1605. Mr. Coxe thinks that the perſon who ſtiled himſelf Demetrius, was not an impoſtor, but the real ſon of Ivan II. preſerved from the aſſaſſination intended for him, by his mother's ſubſtituting another child in his place, and ſending him privately to a convent. The public neglect of the Ruſſian cuſtoms and religious ceremonies after his ſucceſſion, alienated the people's affections, and precipated him from the throne as rapidly as he had aſcended it. After a year's reign, he was in an inſurrection murdered in his own palace, and the leader of it, Vaſſili Shuiſki, was elected in his room.

Ruſſia now became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, in the year 1613; the independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed; Uladiſlaus, ſon to Sigiſmund II. of Poland had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended from the ancient ſovereigns of Russia, had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland, and was there detained priſoner by Sigiſmund III. under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in the caſtle of Marienburg, that they elected their ſon, Michael Fæderowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of ſixteen years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Russia: and being created patriarch by his ſon and inveſted with the adminiſtration of affairs, he governed with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claims of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occaſioned a war between thoſe two nations, which gave Michael a reſpite; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England ſent, at his invitation, ſir John Meyrick, as his ambaſſador to Russia, upon ſome commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain ſum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predeceſſors. The Engliſh court, however, was ſo ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been eſtabliſhed at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great duke and lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted: and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which ſhows him to have been not only well acquainted with the intereſts of his own ſubjects, but the laws and uſages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years; and, by his wiſdom, and the mildneſs of his character, reſtored eaſe and tranquility to his ſubjects. He encouraged them to induſtry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own perſon. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar; and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father, who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He promoted agriculture, introduced into his empire, arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly ſtrengthened his army, by improving its diſcipline. This he

effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotchmen. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambaſſadors not to kiſs the pope's toe. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who had endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtrachan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, where hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death, or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667: he was of a gentle diſpoſition, and weak conſtitution; fond of pomp and magnificence; and in gratifying this propenſity, contributed to poliſh his ſubjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance, which they ſoon began to adopt and imitate. He delighted much in horſes, and rendered a real ſervice to his country by eſtabliſhing very fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elſewhere. He reigned ſeven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Ivan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half-brother, according to Voltaire, he ſaid to them: "Hear my laſt ſentiments; they are dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Ivan neceſſarily muſt affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Ruſſia; he cannot take it amiſs, if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, and to let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robuſt conſtitution joins great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." From the moſt authentic records, it appears, that Peter did not owe his elevation to any declaration of Theodore in his favour, but merely to the ſuffrages of thoſe perſons who aſſerted the right of nominating the ſucceſſor. Peter was choſen, and the government entruſted to Natalia, his mother. But the party in oppoſition was very powerful. The Strelitz, or Ruſſian regiments of guards, poſſeſſed above 14000 armed votes, and not being ſatisfied with their colonels, or the excluſion of the elder brother from the throne, they ſurrounded the palace, and inſiſted on the execution of the Naraſkins, the czarina's chief relations. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription. The city of Moſcow underwent a general pillage and maſſacre for three days. At laſt, by a compromiſe between the two parties, Ivan and Peter were declared joint-ſovereigns, May 18, 1682; but as one was judged incapable of governing, and Peter was only ten years old, the adminiſtration was veſted in their ſiſter, who was of popular manners and great abilities. However Voltaire and other authors may have blackened Sophia's character, it is now evident, from Muller and other good authorities*, that ſhe was a princeſs of great merit, and by no means deſerving of the reproaches caſt upon her; her adminiſtration was wiſe and vigilant, and much to the advantage of her country. She repoſed great confidence in prince Baſil Galitzin, a conſummate politician. Peter, as he advanced in years, being encouraged by his mother, and her adherents, claimed a ſhare in the adminiſtration, and took his ſeat in the privy council, Jan. 25, 1688. From this period, diſſentions aroſe between them, and the aſpiring genius of Peter acquired the aſcendancy. Under the pretence of a conſpiracy againſt his life, he arreſted his ſiſter, and impriſoned her for life in the nunnery of Devitz: ſhe died in 1704. Galitzin's life was ſpared; but his great eſtate was confiſcated: and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment: "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per

* Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. i. p. 395 to 418.

day for thy subsistence." He died in prison at Pooslork in 1713. This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Ivan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security by the execution of above three thousand Strelitz, and at the same time broke the whole body, and abolished their name.

It far exceeds the bounds prescribed to this work, to give even a summary detail of this great prince's actions. All that is necessary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vast reformation he introduced into his dominions. Peter, though he had been very indifferently educated, associated himself with Germans and Dutch; with the former, for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter, for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of five thousand foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of twelve thousand, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Strelitz. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other countries, are too numerous and two well known to be inserted here. By working as a common ship carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he compleated himself in the art of ship-building; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost, finally rendered him a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he showed to Augustus, king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank distinct from merit; and, in 1711, married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish dragoon at Marienburg. General Bauer, taking that place in 1701, was smitten with her, and took her to his house. She was soon removed into the family of the prince Menzikoff, with whom she lived till 1704, when, in the 17th year of her age, she became the mistress of Peter, and afterwards his wife; because, after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his counsels. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. Military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, with Charles XII. were far from the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; and upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said, at the time of his death, which happened in January 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

He was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the czarowitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government: for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. He publicly treated him with inhuman ferocity; and it was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince should be found guilty. It is said, that as soon as the sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the

following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military laws condemn to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts againſt their father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with the greateſt difficulty that he regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him, when he aſked his pardon, and ſoon after died. But the moſt probable opinion is, that he was ſecretly executed in priſon, and that marſhal Weyde was the perſon who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and this was the principal cauſe of her ſubſequent elevation. For juſt before his death he diſcovered an illicit connexion between her and her firſt chamberlain Mons. He ſurpriſed them together in an arbour of the garden, when, ſtriking her with his cane, as well as the page, who would have prevented him from entering the arbour, he retired without uttering a ſingle word. But preſently Mons was taken up, and being threatened with the torture, confeſſed, and was beheaded. The day after the execution, Peter conveyed Catharine in an open carriage under the gallows, to which the head of Mons was nailed. It is ſaid, that the empreſs, without changing colour at this dreadful ſight, exclaimed, "What a pity! that there is ſo much corruption among courtiers." This event was ſoon followed by Peter's death, who probably had deſtined his eldeſt daughter Anne to be his ſucceſſor; but the ſuddenneſs of his death prevented it; and ſome of the nobles and officers being gained by money, jewels, and promiſes, and the two regiments of guards by a largeſs, Catharine mounted the Ruſſian throne. She was in her perſon under the middle ſize, and her abilities have been greatly exaggerated: ſhe could neither read nor write: her daughter Elizabeth uſually ſigned her name for her, and particularly to her laſt will and teſtament. During her ſhort reign, of two years, which may rather be conſidered as the reign of Menzikoff, her life was very irregular. An intemperate uſe of tokay wine, joined to a cancer and dropſy, haſtened her death, which happened on the 17th of May, 1727. She was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe, the original author of the good fortune of Catharine. Peter died of the ſmall-pox, 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Russian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to his eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, dutcheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Ivan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter, the dutcheſs of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous: and though ſhe accepted of the crown under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet, by the aſſiſtance of the guards, ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dolgorucki family, who had impoſed limitations upon her, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland, and was obliged to give way to many ſanguinary meaſures, and ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece, the princeſs of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburg

to arreſt Biron, who was tried and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia, where he continued till Peter III. recalled him, and Catharine reſtored him to the dutchy of Courland.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg and her husband was upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connexions, diſagreeable not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe, and notwithſtanding a proſperous war which they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter I. formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was proclaimed empreſs of the Russians, and the princeſs of Mecklenburg, her huſband and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorius than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father's excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, unknown till her time, in Russia: but at the ſame time, ſhe puniſhed the counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. Count Munich was confined at Pelin in Siberia, in a priſon, which by his order had been erected for Biron; he had a daily allowance of 12s. for himſelf, wife, and a few ſervants. After twenty-one years impriſonment, he was releaſed, and reſtored to his ancient rank by Peter III. in 1762, and died in 1765, eighty-three years old. The chief diſgrace of her reign, was the puniſhment of the counteſſes Beſtucheff and Lapuchin;* each received 60 ſtrokes of the knout in the open ſquare of Petersburg their tongues were cut out, and they were baniſhed into Siberia. Having glorioufly finiſhed the war with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court, where he renounced the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir of the Russian empire. Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expenſe of a large ſubſidy; but many political and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms changed the ſucceſs of the war, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſts were ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her opportune death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand Duke of Russia, and duke of Holſtein, a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of the virtues of Frederic of Pruſſia to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeemed to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. Several ſalutary regulations were made during its ſhort continuance; and he aboliſhed many prerogatives that were oppreſſive and tyranical. But he ſoon incurred the general odium by his public contempt of the Russian manners and religion. He might have ſurmounted the effects of many peculiarities, unpopular as they were; but he aimed at eccleſiaſtical reformations in his dominions, which Peter I. durſt not attempt; and he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alledged, that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both his empreſs and her ſon; and even his advocates acknowledge, that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife in a convent, or rather in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg, and then to place his miſtreſs, the counteſs of Vironzoff, upon the throne, if not to

* See page 147.

change the order of ſucceſſion. However the execution of his deſigns was prevented by a conſpiracy being formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which latter he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement at Robſcha, in July, 1762. That his conduct, with regard to Pruſſia, was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who reigns by the title of Catharine II. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her husband's ſteps.

The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign hitherto is the death of prince Ivan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburg. This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world, was deſigned, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwanona; but by the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelburg, under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that if any perſon, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon, when the empreſs, Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Ivan: ſhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entruſted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Ivan by force of arms from the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg; and under this pretence, the prince was put to death, the 16th of July, 1794, after an impriſonment of twenty-three years. The lieutenant who attemped to deliver him, was arreſted, afterwards beheaded, and his body burnt with the ſcaffold.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as this afforded a very favourable opportunity for Ruſſian interference, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her armies by their reſidence in Poland gave to the Roman catholic Poles, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia, with regard to Poland, gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand ſignior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the Seven Towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captives. In April following, the grand vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army, on the banks of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of this great Turkiſh force in that quarter. He advanced to Choczim where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and entrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early

in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches, followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and the purſuit was only ſtopped by the palliſadoes of the fortreſs. Soon after the town was ſet on fire by red-hot balls, and a great number of Jews and chriſtians, took refuge in the Ruſſian camp. From theſe ſucceſſes of the Ruſſians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen; but prince Galitzin thought proper to retire, and to repaſs the Neiſter, not having ſufficient artillery with him. Indeed it appears that the Turkiſh cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt ſome ſmall towns and deſtroyed ſome Ruſſian magazines.

While the Ruſſians and Turks were attacking each other in different places of their dominions on the ſide of Europe, the Tartar Aſiatic nations, in their different intereſts extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. On the 9th of May, a bloody engagement was fought between the Kalmucs and thoſe Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caſpian ſeas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till ſun-ſet; when the Kalmucs, by the aſſiſtance of ſome Ruſſian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Coſſacs, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great ſlaughter, as the Kalmucs gave no quarter. On the other hand, the European Tartars penetrated into the Ruſſian Ukraine on the ſide of Backmuth, where they commited great devaſtations.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought, in which the Turks were defeated; the Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim, but the garriſon, being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, which was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued, and prince Galitzin was again obliged to retreat and repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians 20,000 men. In the management of this war, the grand vizir acted with a degree of prudence, which would probably have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the janizaries; ſo that, in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romanzow committed great devaſtations on the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt deſtroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Neiſter, and defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks whoſe whole army under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army, without any pretence of ſtratagem or deception, began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe extreme diſadvantages the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy, but were totally defeat-

ed, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs. It was computed that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river, before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid, that the loſs of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. On the 17th of September, eight thouſand janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Neiſter totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Russians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued; not only the field of battle, but the river, over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took ſixty-four pieces of cannon, and above one hundred and fifty colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of the vizir; and it is computed that the Turks loſt twenty-eight thouſand of the braveſt of their troops within little more than a fortnight; and that forty-eight thouſand more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburg covered with laurels.

The Russians carried on the war with ſucceſs; they over-ran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmpt took poſſeſſion of the capital, Jaſſy, without oppoſition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Russians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs, and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Russia as their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army, near the river Larga, ſaid to have amounted to eighty thouſand men, and commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Russian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above ſeven thouſand Turks were killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; a vaſt quantity of ammunition, one hundred and forty-three pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Russians.

But it was not only by land that the Russians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Russian built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide; and by means of this fleet, under count Orlop the Russians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey. It is obſervable, that in this attempt of the Russians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly aſſiſted by England; but whether in this the Engliſh government was influenced by principles of ſound policy, may very reaſonably be queſtioned.

The war between the Russians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land, as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length ſome attempts were made to negociate a peace between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeatedly ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed; but a peace was concluded on the 21ſt of July 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all parts of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburg. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter the third. He appeared in the province of Kaſan, and pretended, that he made his eſcape, through an extraordinary interpoſition of providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. His perſon is ſaid to have had a ſtriking reſemblance to that of the late emperor, a circumſtance which firſt induced him to engage in this enterpriſe. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with the moſt able Russian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops and committed great ravages in the country. But being totally defeated, and then betrayed by two of his confidents, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded and quartered, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.*

The ambitious empreſs of Russia, in the midſt of a profound peace with Turkey and immediately after the concluſion of a treaty of commerce with that nation, in 1783 ſeized on Crim Tartary, the khan of which had reſigned his authority. The Turkiſh government, enfeebled and degenerate, was afraid of contending againſt this unjuſt uſurpation, and acquieſced in the Russian claims. After this ſeizure, a convention was held in the ſame year, between the two powers, in which the Crimea, Cuban Tartary, and the iſland of Taman, were ceded to Russia.

In the year 1787, about the middle of Auguſt, the Turks, ſtill indignant at the uſurpation of the Crimea by Russia, and influenced, it is ſaid, by the intrigues of the Britiſh ambaſſador, very imprudently declared war againſt the Russians. The folly of this meaſure was increaſed by their being wholly unprepared for a ſtate of hoſtility; and the ſucceſs of the war was ſuch as might be reaſonably expected from theſe impolitic proceedings. The Turks were repeatedly defeated with great loſs by the Russians, who took by ſtorm the very important fortreſſes of Choczim and Oczakow.

In this war, the empreſs was joined by the capricious prince Joſeph II. and the avowed object of theſe two imperial allies, was to drive the Turks wholly out of Europe, and make a partition of their country. The Auſtrians were not, however ſo ſucceſsful in their attacks on the Turks as the Russians, for notwithſtanding the relaxed ſtate of the Turkiſh diſcipline, the emperor's forces were worſted in ſeveral engagements and finally compelled to make a diſgraceful retreat, not, however, without taking Belgrade and Bender, two important frontier poſts, the firſt the capital of Servia.

The progreſs of the Russians in this war was marked with horrors and deveſtation. But the moſt frightful ſcene of the whole was at the capture of Iſmail, an important fortreſs, belonging to the Turks. The garriſon defended themſelves for a long time with the greateſt bravery. But at length, on the 22d of December, 1790, the place was taken by ſtorm—the garriſon, conſiſting of 30,000 men, inhumanly butchered in cold blood—and the place delivered to the rage and rapacity

* Here ends the Russian history in the London edition of 1792. The continuation of it is by the editor of the present one.

of a brutal ſoldiery, who perpetrated the moſt horrible cruelties on the wretched inhabitants.

The 12th of April 1791, prince Galitzin had a ſevere engagement with the Turks in the neighbourhood of Brailow, in which he defeated them and cut off 4,000 of their ſoldiers, with 100 officers. The Turks, to the number of 15,000, were again defeated by the Ruſſians, under general Kutuſow. But the moſt ſignal and deciſive victory during the war, was obtained the 9th of July, by prince Repnin, near Maczin, over an army of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkiſh forces. The Ruſſians had only 4 or 500 men killed and wounded, and the Turks left upwards of 4000 dead on the field of battle, and loſt their entire camp equipage, and thirty pieces of cannon.

The Britiſh court, which was ſtill inflamed with reſentment againſt the empreſs of Ruſſia, as the leader in the famous armed neutrality, looked on her ſucceſſes in this war with a very jealous eye. They would not allow Engliſh ſeamen to enter into the Ruſſian ſervice, nor the Ruſſians to hire any tranſports in England—And finally, in conjunction with the court of Berlin, they interfered between the belligerent powers, holding a deciſive tone to the empreſs, and offering their mediation to effect a peace. The Britiſh miniſter, Pitt, threatened to join the Turks, if the empreſs did not reſtore the important fortreſs of Oczakow to them, and actually made great preparations for war. But the empreſs continued firm; and Mr. Pitt declined involving the nation in war. Peace was finally concluded Auguſt 11th, by which the poſſeſſion of Oczakow, with the diſtrict extending from the Bog to the Neiſter was confirmed to Ruſſia.

We have already had occaſion to reprobate the ambitious and aſpiring views of Catharine. But a circumſtance, which has lately occured, will, more than any other event of her reign, conſign her memory to the execration of poſterity, in ſpite of the many ſalutary plans ſhe has deviſed and carried into execution in her own dominions. The unhappy Polanders, harraſſed by their internal diſorders, and tired of being the tools of the neigbouring powers, whoſe miniſters had always a venal part of the diet in pay, and ſubſervient to their views, effected, in May 1791, a total revolution in their form of government, and adopted a new conſtitution, calculated to remove the inveterate evils they laboured under. Excellent as was this conſtitution, there were ſome of the nobles diſaffected towards it, on account of its leſſening many of their privileges in favour of the people. Catharine, afraid that the Poles would eſcape from the ignominious yoke ſhe had impoſed on them, overran the country with her armies, under pretence of aſſiſting theſe malcontents to reſtore the old conſtitution. In effect, though the Polanders at firſt made ſome ſhow of reſiſtance, yet the numerous armies that invaded their country, and the others that were preparing to follow them, obliged them to acquieſce in the imperious commands of this haughty and domineering deſpot. The new conſtitution was aboliſhed—the triumph of Poliſh traitors, who had ſolicited Ruſſian aid to ſubjugate their country, was complete—and the Ruſſian ambaſſador at Warſaw has now effectually more real authority in Poland, than the patriotic Staniſlaus.

But even this is not enough to ſatisfy the boundleſs rapacity of this ſcourge of nations. For we learn by the laſt advices from Europe, that with her worthy aſſociates, the king of Prussia, and the emperor of Germany, ſhe meditates a final diſmemberment of Poland, the whole of which is to be parcelled out among this band of crowned robbers.—

To draw the character of Catharine, is a matter of ſome difficulty. When we conſider her within her own dominions, we meet with ample matter of praiſe and admiration. She has been an uniform patroneſs of literature and the fine arts. Men of abilities and genius, of various nations, have experienced her liberality. The barbarous code of laws exiſting in her empire at her accession, claimed her early

attention—and she appointed commissioners to improve them. What has been the result of their deliberations, we have not yet learned. She has been industrious in the promotion of trade and commerce—and in holding out every encouragement to active industry. In a word, considered relatively to Russia alone, she has proved herself a great princess, equal, if not superior, to any of her cotemporaries. But when we regard her in relation to other nations, "how lost, how fallen!" If we except the wise and exalted policy of the very formidable armed neutrality*, by which, in conjunction with the other northern powers, she rescued the neutral nations from the tyranny of those at war, we shall hardly see a single measure not fraught with injustice. One of the earliest projects of her reign was the infamous dismemberment of Poland. Her intrigues and corrupting gold for a long time involved the kingdom of Sweden in feuds and distraction. Her boundless ambition aimed at nothing less than a coronation in Constantinople. And her late proceedings, with respect to Poland, which we have just mentioned, sink her into the depths of inexpiable infamy. "She is seized whith the frenzy of conquest; while her ancient dominions, considerably more extensive than the empire of antient Rome, afforded scope for the activity of the wisest politician. She is ever employed in warlike preparations, or in war; though her territories, without this preternatural exhausture, are little better than an uninhabited desert. She surveys with scientific accuracy, the extremities of her empire, while its centre and its heart are totally neglected."

"Catharine II. empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt Zerbst, was born in 1729, and ascended the throne in 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince whilst duke of Holstein Gottorp, 1745, by whom she has issue Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Russia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his present duchess, the princess of Wirtemberg, has had two sons, Alexander and Constantine, and a daughter, Alexandrina-Pawleona."

* "One of the most remarkable transactions "of her reign, is her establishment of an armed "neutrality, for the protection of the commerce "of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from "belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the sub- "jects of such powers are looked upon as free, on board "such neutral ships, except the goods stipulated contra- "band in her treaty of commerce with Great-Britain. "It was in 1780, that her imperial majesty invited the "powers that were not at war to accede to this armed neu- "trality. Those who engaged were to make a common "cause at sea against any of the powers who should violate, "with respect to neutral nations, those principles of "maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, "the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, "and by the states-general."

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

ACCORDING to the general plan I have laid down, I ſhall treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, ſhall comprehend, under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſles of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of noth latitude; and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungsby head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] In all theſe iſlands, the air is keen, piercing and ſalubrious; and many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſles, they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent: the reſt of the year, they are almoſt inaccessible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty-ſix in number, (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen, and it is the ſeat of a presbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at midſummer, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona. Its length is thirty-three miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in ſome places, almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are, Lewis or Herries (for they both form but one iſland) which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is about 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together about 370 ſquare miles; but they have no towns worthy of notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, fa-

mous for herring-fiſhing. I ſhall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides, which are at preſent of ſmall importance, either to the public or the proprietors, though, probably, they may hereafter be of great conſequence to both. by the very improveable fiſheries upon their coaſt. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous iſland of Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is ſtill famous for its relics of ſanctimonious antiquity. Some authors have been at great pains to deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, that I can diſcover, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are proteſtant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. The iſlands of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the conqueror. In the year 1263, they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scotland, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland, with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire; which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps, their manners are more ſimple, and their minds leſs cultivated. Men of fortune have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwellings and other houſes, in a modern taſte; and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art of fermenting, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people are as expert as the Norwegians in ſeizing the neſts of ſea-fowls, which build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. Their temperance preſerves them from the diſeaſes incident to luxury, They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themſelves were often known to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent, their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands; perhaps the deſcendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory and are the hiſtorians, or rather the genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation

and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner, but, as it is ſaid, more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times*. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders, ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors; and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connexions. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter-milk, and whey, and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both ſexes, in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author who ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides, under the name of the *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of ſome inſtances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, and to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. But, from the beſt information, no two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of theſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, wich they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to prophecy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe, being well atteſted, give a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the moſt weſterly iſlands planted by the Celts, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though plauſible, is not juſtified by experience. Many Celtic words, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern nations, whoſe language is mixed with the Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland; but the Roman catholic religion ſtill prevails among ſome of the iſlanders. Many ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms are to be met with.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] The ſurface of theſe iſlands has undergone great alterations. Many of them were habitations of the druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of building erected ſince the introduction of chriſtianity, which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Expe-

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry.

rience daily ſhows, that if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands till of late was barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots as are now cultivated, produce corn and vegetables more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and fruit trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines—marl, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble—have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time, it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is ſtill bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTORIES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. Their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which, when properly cured, are equal to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; their ſheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and the linen manufactures begin to make ſome progreſs among them. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands, not only comfortable for their inhabitants, but ornamental and beneficial to their mother country.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] In the neighbouring countries, already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy. The coaſt of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe 20 years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſhed the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But this pernicious traffic appears now to draw to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] Theſe iſlands exhibit many proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, that they were anciently more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf-ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of druidical temples, ſome of which muſt have required equal labour with the famous Stonehenge, near Salisbury. Others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons, or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone, ſtanding upright: ſome have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſupulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to deſcribe them. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of a larger ſize than the preſent. In is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs,

and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stenis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four pillars. The three gates of the church are checquered with red and white poliſhed ſtones, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles, for their remains of antiquity; and it would exceed the bounds allotted to this head, to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated Iſle of Iona, called St. Columba-kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious edifices upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy perſons, while Ireland, England, and Scotland were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaelic inſcriptions. The tomb of St. Columba, who lies buried here is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows curiouſly carved, and the altar of the fineſt marble. Innumerable inſcriptions, referring to ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies, are diſcernible in this iſland; which give countenance to the well-known obſervation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli or Mulucca beans have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phenomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural. But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved, even by the natives. A diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of ſir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays, "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence, which exceeded our expectations, the whole of that end of the iſland (viz, Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in colonades upon the firm baſis of rock; above theſe the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or valies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, compoſed an ample pediment; ſometimes ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, and formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt into the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by men? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect? regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in perfection; though undeſcribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which ſurpaſſes deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſes, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible."——Sir Joſeph Banks particulariſes ſundry

other appearances in this, and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this pictureſque ſcene is Fingal's cave, which he deſcribes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of ſuch reflexions, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers*. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagtitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt," ſays he, "appears the beautiful group of the Treaſhuniſh iſles; neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giant's cauſeway, riſing amidſt the way, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject; "We had in view a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giant's cauſeway, the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roads entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian; the Giant's cauſeway appears firſt: Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther; and finally, thoſe columns of Sky: the depths of the ocean, in all probability, conceal the vaſt links of this chain.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by ſir J. Banks.

	Feet		Feet
Length of the cave from the arch without	371	At the end	70
From the pitch of the arch	250	Height of an outſide pillar	39
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53	Of one the N. W. corner	54
At the farther end	20	Depth of water at the mouth	18
Height of the arch at the mouth	117	At the bottom	9

SCOTLAND.

Extent and Situation.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 300	between	54 and 59	North latitude.
Breadth 190		1 and 6	Weſt longitude.

Name.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this country. The Scots, a ſcythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland. The word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scyth or Scythian. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Ecoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

Boundaries.] Scotland which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or, more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

Divisions, and subdivisions.] Scotland is divided into the counties ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh: and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen to the northern; and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwics, according to the ancient tenures, and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh	(429*)	Mid-Lothian	Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington	(121)	Eaſt-Lothian	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3. Merſe, anciently Berwick†	(114)	The Merches, and Lauderdale	Dunſe, and Lauder,
4. Roxborough	(195)	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk	(19)	Ettrick Foreſt	Selkirk.
6. Peebles	(42)	Tweedale	Peebles.
7. Lanerk	(388)	Clydeſdale	Glaſgow, W. long. 4-5 N. lat. 55 52. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries	(188)	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annan.

* The numbers show the proportion of militia as proposed to be raiſed in each ſhire, when that ſcheme was laid before parliment in 1775.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe, diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.		Sherriffdoms and other subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
9. Wigtown	(190)	Galloway, Weſt part	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright	(100)	Galloway, Eaſt Part	Kircudbright.
11. Air	(280)	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybold, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton	(66)	Lenox	Dumbarton.
13. Bute (34) and 14. Caithneſs	(105)	Bute, Arran; and Caithneſs	Rothſay. Wick, N. lat. 58-40 and Thurſo.
15. Renfrew	(126)	Renfrew	Renfrew, Paiſly, Greenock, and Port-Glaſgow.
16. Stirling	(76)	Stirling	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	(80)	Weſt Lothian	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, & Queensferry.
18. Argyle	(314)	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terif, Col, and Liſmore	Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown.
19. Perth	(570)	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenſhield, & Raynork	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardine	(109)	Merns	Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardine.
21. Aberdeen	(551)	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie	Old Aberdeen, W. long. 1-40 N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraſersburg, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverneſs	(282)	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmoriſon	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau.
23. Nairne (27) and 24. Cromartie	(24)	Weſtern Part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairn, Cromartie.
25. Fife	(387)	Fife	St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland, Dumferline, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour.
26. Forfar	(326)	Forfar, Angus	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Aberbroth & Brechin.
27. Bamff	(182)	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Bamff and Cullen.

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
28. Sutherland	(100)	Strathnaver and Sutherland	Strathy and Dornoch.
29. Clacmannan	(31)		
30. Kinroſs	(23)	Fife part	Culroſs, Clackmannan, Alloa and Kinroſs.
31. Roſs	(201)	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald	Tayne, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſomarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin	(145)	Murray and Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney	(183)	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59. 45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.

In all, thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The royal boroughs, which chooſe repreſentatives, are;

Edinburgh 1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne, 1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres, 1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore, 1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbroth, and Brechin, 1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews, 1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem, 1
Dyſert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland, 1
Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queens-ferry, Cluroſs, and Stirling, 1
Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton, 1
Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh, 1
Selkirk, Peeples, Linlithgow, and Lanerk, 1
Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kircudbright, 1
Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn, 1
Air, Irvin, Rothſay, Campbel-town, and Inverary, 1

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, day-light, at Midſummer, laſts eighteen hours and five minutes; which proportion of day to night is reverſed in winter. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered

with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. Yet, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and reposited in these vallies, afford them a strong vegetative nourishment; though experience has proved that garden productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by an intermixture of natural objects. The inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford delightful situations for country-houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have availed themselves. It is their situation as much as their magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil. Water passing through a heavy soil, is turbid and noxious, but filtrating through sand or gravel, is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is commonly the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates, in proportion as the land is worse.

Mountains.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides these continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, sometimes of great height, which, from their conical figure, have been distinguished by the Celtic appellation of *laws*.

Rivers, lakes, and forests.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself, near Edinburgh, into that arm of the German sea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and running from south-west to north-east, falls into tho sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and, after many serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior degree, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fish, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers go by the name of *esk*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in this part of Great Britain, was undertaken at a very considerable expense by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochness, Loch Au, and some others, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in any other coun-

try of Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its herrings. The Loch of Spinic, near Elgin, is remarkable for swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever to be fathomed, and which never freezes: whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent of and unmixed with the Lowlanders. Besides these rivers and lochs, the coasts of Scotland are indented with large, bold, and navigable bays, or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown bay: sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be seen. Several woods, however, still remain; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but lying at great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded in the execution, there was little encouragement to continue it. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland cannot now boast of its gold mines, yet it is certain, that it formerly afforded a quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford Moor; and when that prince married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins struck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver mines that are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the

better ſort are conſtructed of good materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulty for fuel; however, the taſte for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; allum mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potter's clay, and fullers' earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the advantage, in their founderies, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. The ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid, that ſome tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are far leſs exhauſted than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants and manufacturers of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of induſtry, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks and marſhes, which being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted. The fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where, as well as in Angus, the farmers, who generally rent from three to 500l. per annum, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant, ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve the farm. In ſuch places, the husbandman barely exiſts upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. The cattle are lean and ſmall the houſes mean, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as are common in England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, occupying more room than ſtone-incloſures, which, except in the Lothians, are generally low paltry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, and have a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties, the fineſt garden fruits are ſaid to fall little ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; while many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath.

The sea-coast produces the alga-marina, dulse or dulish, in great quantities, and other marine plants which are eaten for nourishment or pleasure.

The fisheries on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described; but the Scotch have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and the bill, passed in 1786, bids fair to enable them to emulate the Dutch, in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scotch seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets, than the English or Irish, are of great service to the nation as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and other animals for game, are here plentiful; also the grouse and heath-cock: the capperkaily, and the ptarmacan, birds of an exquisite flavour, are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. The numbers of black cattle upon the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. This trade is now on its decline, by the increase of manufacturers, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horses, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but, notwithstanding all the care that had been taken, it was found that the climate and soil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminished both in size and spirit; so that about the time of the union, few horses, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late, to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and such pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, that success has answered the most sanguine expectations.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjectures, as no attempt has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principles, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and by the best information, they make the number of soldiers, furnished by Scotland in the war in 1755, amount to 80,000 men. We are to observe, that above 60,000 of these were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two milions, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and credible histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English, without any very sensible decrease of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as the head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive, that family pride, which is not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of barbarity. Their family differences, eſpecially the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſt of the common people only, but were authorized and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, except ſome who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in no other light than commanders of their army in time of war: for in peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan or family, even in the moſt civilized part of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. Theſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates: and they generally executed their haſty ſentences in four and twenty hours after the parties were apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependants, and to baniſh thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

Scotch gentlemen, who formerly piqued themſelves upon their family, or the antiquity of their deſcent, were very diſagreeable members of ſociety: becauſe, forgetting all the virtues of their anceſtors, they imitated them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Thoſe who go abroad, and endeavour by induſtry to riſe from their low circumſtances, excel, in the civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a ſimilarity in their perſonal characters; and by ſeeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you ſee a tolerable picture of the whole. They are in general hoſpitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They aſſimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live, with more eaſe and freedom than the natives of moſt other countries; and they have a ſurpriſing facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

It remains perhaps a queſtion, whether the lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmoſt ſervice to many of its natives. Their literature, however ſlight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the ſame time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the beſt fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

From what has been ſaid, it appears, that the ancient mode of living among the

Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a Roman conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

With regard to the gentlemen who live at home, upon eſtates of 300l. a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing in their manners and ſtyle of living, from their Engliſh neighbours of the like fortunes. The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid economy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions: and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterpriſe: but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity, and reſolution with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary: Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies; witneſs that which put Porteous to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of twenty thouſand people; and, though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarce be believed, were it not well atteſted, and has never been exceeded by any nation in the world.

The lower claſs are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh, to convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, they ſeem, for that very reaſon, to enjoy them more completely. One teſtimony there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. The gueſts pay according to their inclination or ability, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein of poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of muſic. Love is generally the ſubject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of art, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtripped of that original ſimplicity, which however irregular, is their moſt eſſential characteriſtic, ſo agreeable to the ear, and poſſeſſing ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed, that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſehood invented by his countrymen, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in the church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but were there no other evidence to confute this report, the original character of the muſic is ſufficient.

The common people retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing bell;

but he ſtops at certain places, and with ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers; and the corpſe is carried in the coffin, covered with a velvet pall, with chairpoles, to the grave, where it is interred without farther ceremony than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner is in England, but without any burial ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen is the Golff, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played with a bat and ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, aud faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the Mall, which was common in England, in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of Curling is, perhaps, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark, is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding ſummer and winter diverſions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the diverſions common in England, cricket excepted, which the gentlemen conſider as too athletic and mechanical.

Language and dress.] We place theſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other; both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This ſtuff is of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſkirt, the Highlanders wear a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues: ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig* which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is, probably, the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the *philibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters, formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet, brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtraight ſleeves, trimmed, or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen, of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the plaids and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, eſpecially the Tuſcans, who were probably of celtic original.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebllion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. The conveniency, however, of the former dreſs, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time. The dreſs of the higher and middling ranks in the Low country, differs little from that of the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms.

The language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. The pronunciation of a Scotchman is now improving, and with ſome does not differ from that of an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome other counties.

Punishments.] Theſe are much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden: the model of which was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland by the regent earl of Morton; and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

Religion.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by some of the diſciples of St. John the apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scottiſh hiſtorians call Donald the firſt his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from their own body, and who had no pre-eminence over their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and confirmed in Scotland, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome, in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the authority of the Roman church, which at laſt prevailed in Scotland, though its dependance upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the ſubjection of other countries.

The Culdees long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the fourteenth century, when they diſappeared. The oppoſition of the Roman catholic religion, though it ceaſed in Scotland, upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England, by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century, and the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not fully ripe for this great revolution; and the completion of the buſineſs in England was reſerved for the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts and ſciences began to revive in Europe, the reformation in Scotland began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland: it was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of its clergy. The great nobility, whoſe imagination had already engroſſed theſe poſſeſſions, did not at firſt diſcourage this idea; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, in the execution of which, through the fury of the mob, ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world were deſtroyed: than the parliament, or rather nobility, monopolized all the church-livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great alteration in their favour.

The great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding events rendered the presbyterian clergy of great importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work admit not of entering upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland; it is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad, and in the chief heads of oppoſition to the Roman catholics; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment at various periods proved ſo tyranical, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of their dangerous power over the laiety. The obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. The power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes: but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but they freely uſe the Lord's prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of the proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain and the Weſtern iſles: and the Scotch

clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows aud orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland is eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which may be called the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A presbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters, and two ruling elders: but if the presbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two: whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk-ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner. The commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often perſons of the firſt quality of the country. The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets annually, in May: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confuſion, which the moderator, who is choſen by them to be ſpeaker, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland, to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over which they have power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſable by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods are presbyteries, ſixty-nine in number, each conſiſting of ſeveral contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder choſen half yearly out of every kirk-ſeſſion, compoſe a preſbytery: theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion; but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cognizance of all eccleſiaſtical matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the presbytery fills the place, *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland; and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſter, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act much as church wardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendancy of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The place of elder, or ruling elder, is of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion-table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate and preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Scotland was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm: at preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines, are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however,

that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm, not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were ſuppoſed to be incompatible with the nature of government. They maintain their own preachers; though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice.

A different ſet of diſſenters in Scotland conſiſts of the epiſcopalians, many Roman catholics, a few quakers, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their founders. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the reſtoration, in 1660, to that of the revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe king William's title. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but at the breaking out of the rebelion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt but thinly. The decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy, in Scotland: the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government. The defection of ſome great families from the Roman catholics, and the extinction of others, have rendered their numbers inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt them, they are as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhoprics, St. Andrews, and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhoprics, which are Edinburg, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the iſles.

Learning, and learned men.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern part of the iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland, and many others ſince, whoſe bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, ſtill extant, and of ſome others, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invaſion, afford ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into league; and employed Scotchmen in planting, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of the modern productions in that language. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of the anſwers. This has been conſidered as a proof that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery, which in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſton; and, ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phiſico-mathematical works, to clearneſs of reaſoning, has added the colouring of a poet, which

is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light though the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His treatiſe on fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the almoſt deſerted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, well known for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and his conic ſections, are ſufficient to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country. This, however, does not reſt on the character of mathematicians and aſtronomers. The fine arts have been called ſiſters, to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connexion between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics and phyſics, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine, particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Wyatt, Cullen, Brown, &c. hold a diſtinguiſhed place. In political economy, or the grand art of promoting the happineſs of mankind, by a wiſe adminiſtration of government, Scotland can boaſt of ſome highly and juſtly celebrated writers, Smith, Anderſon, and Steuart, whoſe works ſhould be the ſtatesman's and legiſlator's conſtant ſtudy, and who merit the warmeſt thanks from ſociety, for the pains they have taken to advance its deareſt intereſts.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners, who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thompſon. But all the literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Among thoſe modern philoſophers whoſe writings have done honour to North Britain, we readily diſtinguiſh Dr. James Beattie of Aberdeen, Dr. Thomas Reid of Glaſgow, and Mr. Dugald Stewart, profeſſor of moral philoſophy in the univerſity of Edinburgh. The abilities and various works of Dr. Beattie and Dr. Reid are long ſince known to the literary world. Upon a ſubject of a nature ſo abſtracted as metaphyſics, it requires peculiar felicity of genius to become extremely intereſting; yet the elements of the philoſophy of the human mind by Mr. Stewart, is one of the moſt pleaſing and inſtructive works, which we remember to have peruſed. It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels. However, it would be improper to paſs over the names of Hume and Robertſon, which ſtand eminently conſpicuous, and will not ſhrink from a compariſon with thoſe of the moſt celebrated hiſtorians of ancient or modern times.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrew's,*

* St. Andrew's has a chancellor, two principals, and eleven professors in
Greek, Logic, Mathematics, Divinity,
Humanity, Moral philosophy, Civil history, Medicine.
Hebrew, Natural philosophy, Church history.

founded in 1411;—Glaſgow †, 1454;—Aberdeen ‖, 1477;—and Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims our firſt attention in this diviſion. Its caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed impregnable; and was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh; as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the High-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides, north and ſouth. In former times, the town was ſurrounded by water, except towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes, divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well-paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins the city. The inconveniencies ariſing from this crouded population being ſo very apparent, the modern houſes are generally built in the Engliſh taſte, of a moderate height, and accomodated to the uſe of a ſingle family. This improvement particularly prevails in the new town. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of forty or fifty miles, which border upon the Highlands. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, a large magazine of arms and ammunition, and contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Oppoſite to the caſtle, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and

† Glaſgow has a chancellor, rector, dean of faculty, principal and fourteen profeſſors in

Greek,	Logic,	Practical aſtronomy,	Medicine,
Humanity,	Moral philoſophy,	Hiſtory,	Anatomy.
Hebrew,	Natural philoſophy,	Divinity,	
Oriental languages,	Mathematics,	Civil and Scotch law,	

‖ Aberdeen has properly two colleges, viz. King's college, and Marſchal college; King's college has a chancellor, rector, principal, and ſeven profeſſors in

Greek,	Oriental languages,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Humanity,	Philoſophy,	Civil law,	

Marſchal college has a chancellor, rector, principal, and ſeven profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral philoſophy and logic,	Natural philoſophy,	Divinity,
Oriental languages,		Mathematics,	Medicine.

‡ Edinburgh has a patron, principal, and profeſſors in

Divinity,	Natural philoſophy,	Law of nature and nations,	Inſtitutes of phyſic and medicine,
Church hiſtory,	Mathematics,	Rhetoric and belles letters,	Practice of medicine,
Greek,	Civil hiſtory,	Botany,	Chemiſtry,
Humanity,	Natural hiſtory,	Materia Medica,	Anatomy,
Hebrew,	Scotch law,		Midwifery.
Logic,	Civil law,		
Moral philoſophy,			

under the direction of ſir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains good apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have adorned the neighbourhood of this palace, which is ſituate at the bottom of bleak crags and bare mountains. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries, ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years ago, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a good ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and is, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the public edifices of Edinburgh is the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days. What is of more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art, are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by ſir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities. The magiſtrates of Edinburgh intend to erect a new and elegant ſtructure upon the preſent ſituation, as ſoon as a fund can be formed adequate to the expenſe.

The Parliament-ſquare, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of the city; it is formed into a quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is ſaid to be better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation; in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining to the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both, though lofty in the roof, are

dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on for lodging the books and papers in rooms better suited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention. This pavement has been lately much improved.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almost completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with regularity, and the houses are built of stone, in an elegant taste, with all the conveniences that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some are superbly finished, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietors.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water bordered by a terrace walk and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant design has not yet taken place. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge*, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in describing this place, that the reader may form some idea of its pleasant situation, standing on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each side, in the heart of a rich country; the view southward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic castle, and distant hills rising to an amazing height; while the prospect northward gives full scope to the eye, pleases the imagination, and fills the mind with such ideas as the works of nature alone can inspire.

This city may be considered, notwithstanding its castle, and a wall of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, which encloses it on the south side, as an open town; so that it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it against the rebels, who took possession of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouse, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of the British dominions, London and Bath excepted. In the new town are several handsome and covenient hotels; and the coffee houses and taverns in the old town are much improved.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon, and there are 14; viz. surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is

* A brige has been lately erected towards the south, which not only connects the buildings in that quarter with the old and new towns, but admits of an easy access to the country. This south bridge forms a most elegant street, with magnificent buildings on each side, and is directly opposite to that over the North Loch, and will be productive of many advantages, and afford a great increase of revenue to the city of Edinburgh,

colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of the Britiſh dominions, but at Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes 16 companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product has been ſufficient to defray the expenſe of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expenſe and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are increaſing; particularly the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-houſe, ſo called from the earl, its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt, perhaps, in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in a good ſtyle of architecture; and the cathedral is a Gothic building. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid reformers, by the reſolution of the citizens. The town houſe is a lofty building, and has noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity, eſteemed the beſt built of any in Scotland, is at preſent in a thriving ſtate, and its buildings will be much improved and extended in conſequence of the liberal donations bequeathed by the late Dr. Hunter. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals; it is well ſupplied with inns; and, near the moſt populous part of the town, where the trades aſſemble, is a hotel, tavern, and ſpacious coffee-houſe, named the *Tontine*, ſupported by ſubſcription. It is, perhaps, equal to any thing of the kind, and well calculated for the accommodation of ſtrangers and the inhabitants of this commercial city. They have lately built a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city, carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven

churches and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. Its inhabitants have been eſtimated at fifty thouſand.

Aberdeen is the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives name, and contains two towns. New and Old Aberdeen; the former is the ſhire-town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting houſes. It has a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well frequented univerſity, and above twenty-five thouſand inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of theſe places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, though independent of each other. There is, at preſent, a proſpect of their being united.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain called the Carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about twenty thouſand inhabitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of conſiderable trade exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothic, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the trade of the firſt has declined; but the manufactures of the other two are in an improving ſtate.

It may be neceſſary again to mention, that we write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland. Edinburgh certainly contains more than ſixty thouſand ſouls, which is the common computation to which we all along conform ourſelves: but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants, who are diſpoſed to induſtry, may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Stirling, and about fifty other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland, is omitted.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical, perhaps, than prudent, as they have often experienced. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out forty-eight hours, if beſieged by ſix thouſand regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood; as are Fort George and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt; but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

It is needleſs to give a deſcription of the edifices, which, within the courſe of this and the laſt century have been erected by private perſons in Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they are very numerous, and that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries; and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture, than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, where, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expenſe. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long ſuffering they had endured from the Roman Catholic party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland, have furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls, reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible; as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood.* Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king, Galgacus, whom he defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum, or fort. It is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and on the four gates which lead into the area, there are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingſhire, but has lately been barbarouſly demoliſhed by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole, it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis: which ſerve to evince that there was a kind of compromiſe between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire father to the northward. Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland: ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of the Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes of ſtupendous fabric, remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Iti-

* Near the western extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonshire, a countryman in digging a trench upon the declivity of a hill, upon which are seen the remains of a Roman fort, turned several uncommon tiles, which exciting the curiosity of the peasantry in that neighbourhood, they broke in upon an entire subterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart load of these materials. A gentleman found means, upon the second day, to stop all farther proceedings, in hopes that some public-spirited persons would, by taking off the surface, explore the whole without demolishing it. The tiles are of several different sizes; the smallest being seven, and the largest twenty-one inches square. They are from two to three inches in thickness, of a reddish colour, and in a perfectly sound condition. The lesser ones compose several rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of passages about eighteen inches square: and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, serve as a roof to support the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is surrounded by a subterraneous wall of hewn stone.

nerarium Septentrionale. It is probable that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts. Two Pictiſh monuments, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide and without a ſtair caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn freeſtone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top*.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno: They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with baſ-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, now inexplicable. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots have been diſcovered; and the obſcurity of their ſculptures has encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures. It would be unpardonable, not to mention the ſtone near the town of Forres, or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnitude, "and is," ſays Mr. Gordon, "perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about twenty-three feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than twelve or fifteen feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt thirty-five feet, and its breadth near five: It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet we have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well-cut flag-ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion, on the reverſe, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds and animals. The remains of the cathedral of Elgin diſplay much grandeur and dignity. The weſt door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings; and the whole edifice exhibits very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle, in the north of Scotland, formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families, in periods of civil war. Inverurie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earls-mareſchal of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on the ſteep bank of the river; two high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of grandeur and antiquity. Rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley, are the ruins of Huntley caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a

* If these columns, which stand in the ancient dominions of the Picts be really the work of that nation, their architects must have been equal to any at that time in Europe.

maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments and their curious ceilings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scotch antiquities, many druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but, though equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the druidical monuments in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire, a barrow, which ſeems to be Britiſh; it exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip, with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terrae navis*, the ſhip of earth. It appears to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pumice or ſcoria of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the volcanic Iceland. Among other natural curioſities, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with a great plenty of oyſter and other ſea ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſs-ſhire, twenty, miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the dropping cave, where water oozing through a ſpongy porous rock at the top, quickly conſolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar. Some caverns in Fifeſhire are probably natural, and of extraordinary dimenſions.

Commerce and manufactures.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on an Eaſt and Weſt India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterprize. The miſcarriages of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of William III. in whoſe reign it happened. The diſguſt conceived by the nation on that account, made commerce languiſh, until Mr. Pelham, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, diſcovered the true value of Scotland. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted by the Scots for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan; and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that Great Britain was ever engaged in. Let it be remarked, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament. This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping, within theſe forty years paſt, has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch

manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries their products, to the immenſe gain of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connexion and trade with Virginia and the Weſt Indies. The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts; for they have a trifling concern in the whale fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitsbergen. Their other fiſheries are increaſing, their cured fiſh being preferred by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of Clyde and the neighbouring iſland. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength and its commerce. Though the political exiſtence of Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her ſeamen, this noble inſtitution ſtill labours under many difficulties from the caprice and ignorance of the legiſlature.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes, they have again embarked in the fiſhery; and it is to be wiſhed, that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place this fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire. Their linen manufactory is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal to any in the world; it has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption: and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woolen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. It is true, that they cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths, but they make ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among their late improvements we are not to forget the progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ores of their country. The coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contract for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the late war. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and

rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce. With regard to other manufactures, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a cheap and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufactures to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. There are undoubtedly ſome diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London: but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of the trade; and the evil is infinitely augmented by the immenſe ſums annually tranſmitted to England for manufactures, and as the balance of cuſtoms and exciſe, after defraying the whole expenſes of government. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have, in ſome meaſure, abandoned the uſe of French brandy and claret, for port, and rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; but this manufacture lies under exceſſive oppreſſion from the invidious policy of that country.

Revenue.] See England.

Coins.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner, till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are long ſince laid aſide. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babee; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation made of the Scotch ſhilling holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but money of account. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

Order of the thistle.] This is a military order, inſtituted, as ſome Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making a league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 companions, who are called knights of the thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*. "Nobody provokes me unpuniſhed."

Laws and constitution.] The ancient conſtitution of government in Scotland has been applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exciſing a deſpotic authority; but the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind, to afford the common people that equal liberty

which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it altogether in their power to oppreſs their tenants and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz. "In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people, my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments, I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhow mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a controuling power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even entruſted with the executive power. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant: in ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhowed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by their clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. They were choſen from the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen choſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire) and eight commiſſioners for burghs; to whom were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles: and though Charles I. endeavoured to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the revolution, the Scots gave

a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown, which they conferred on the prince and princeſs of Orange. This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny, ever ſince the reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament had endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England; they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had a deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers or jury to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, aſſembled for the purpoſes of taxation only. Before the union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great were, the lord high-chancellor, high-treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary: the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-deputy, and juſtice-clerk. The officers of privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk ſtill continue; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat officially in the Scotch parliament.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight marſhal. The office of chancellor in Scotland differed little from that in England; the ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the number upon a diviſion. The lord-advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. One ſolicitor is named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtant to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, when the juſtice-general is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex fæcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly a place of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in a greater

purity than in any other country, except Germany. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy council of Scotland before the revolution, had or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took the name of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all queſtions of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all ſubjects that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It can be no matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the union. This may be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh houſe of lords, to which an appeal lies. The ſupreme criminal judge was named the juſticiar, and the court of juſticiary ſucceeded to his power.

The juſticiary court is the higheſt tribunal in Scotland: but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord juſtice general, removeable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and four other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. The verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but without the neceſſity of their being unanimous. Twice in the year, during the ſpring and harveſt vacations, the judges of this court hold circuits in certain boroughs appointed by ſtatute.

Beſides theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters cognizable by the court of exchequer of England, are likewiſe cognizable by the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high-admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood-mark; ſo that nothing competent to his juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high-admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before this court: but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in ſuch caſes, is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby, and the Hanſe towns, and other maritime practices and deciſions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is nothing more than nominal; but the ſalary is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is

commonly a lawyer of diſtinction, with conſiderable perquiſites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, may be called the ſeminary of Scotch lawyers. They are an orderly court, and their forms require great preciſion and examination to qualify its candidates for admiſſion. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or attornies, who are named writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs that paſs the ſignet, they likewiſe have a bye government for their own regulation.

The government of the counties of Scotland was formerly veſted in ſheriffs and ſtewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commiſſaries, juſtices of the peace, and coroners. Formerly ſheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all veſted in the crown; it being enacted, that all high-ſheriffs, or ſtewards, ſhall, in future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors. In regard to the ſheriff-deputes and ſteward-deputes, it is enacted, that there ſhall only be one in each county, or ſtewartry, who muſt be an advocate, of three years' ſtanding at leaſt. For the ſpace of ſeven years, theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king, with ſuch continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life, unleſs guilty of ſome offence. Some other regulations have been likewiſe introduced, highly for the credit of the ſheriff courts. Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the ſtewarts had much the ſame power in them, as the ſheriff had in his county. Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal juriſdiction veſted in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but theſe were ſo dangerous, and ſo extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now diſſolved by an act of parliament. Baron courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to cauſes not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day-time. Theſe courts were, in former days, inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt. The courts of commiſſaries in Scotland anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors, the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tythes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland exerciſe the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times, their office, though of old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter the depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office hath long ſince been laid aſide.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, the oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland, form as it were, a commercial parliament, which

meets once a year, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extenſive; and, before the union, they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures; to the curing of ſalmon and herrings; and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and it is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary. This is a very ſingular inſtitution, and proves the attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce; but it hath now ſhrunk into perfect inſignificance.

Such are the laws and conſtitution of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practices; and their acts of *federunt* anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. One obſervation proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which, I believe, has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch conſtitutions is called the Moot or Mute-hill: here all national affairs were tranſacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folc mote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of fiction and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were the firſt inhabitants; the Picts were Britons forced northward by the Belgic Gauls, above fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in armies on the continent, and after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by Saxons, and by the Britons who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people, in proceſs of time, were ſubdued by the Scots.

It is unneceſſary to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government. It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals, before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both nations; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion.

It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the 21ſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their reſiſtance obliged Agricola, and after him the emperors Adrian, and Severus, to build two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth; and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the beginning of the ſecond century. The Picts, who were the deſcendants of the ancient Britons, had at that time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scotch monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe: but it broke out with more luſtre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and in conjunction with the Picts, invaded, the Britons; and, having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief: and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them that they have no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or of periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians; for ſo all nations were called, who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection.

About the year 786, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which long continued inviolate. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the dominions of that great conqueror. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination: for he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who, being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrone in Scotland, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs, who then governed England, were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who aſſerted their freedom and independency againſt foreign invaders and domeſtic uſurpers. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words, which ſignify a *large head*, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſeventh from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Any reader, acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as writen by the in-

imitable Shakeſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory previous to his mounting the throne in 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, not inferior to his cotemporary, the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwic, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. a wiſe and valiant prince, aſſumed the government; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death, David I. mounted the throne. Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, viz. the glories of this reign, it appears, that David was one of the greateſt princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to that iſland. His actions and the reſources which he found in his own courage, prove him to have been a real hero. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, we are to conſider, that by them only he could hope to civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws drawn up by him does his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe, in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed, from his valour, the Lion. William's ſon, Alexander II. was ſucceeded in 1249, by Alexander III. a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders' daughter; David; and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have entered into this detail, becauſe it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great grandſon to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England the moſt ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many bold endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own; but though they were often defeated, and he for a ſhort time made him-

ſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe who were ſo zealouſly attached to the independence of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing, were but few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time they were obliged to temporize, Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off, or deſtroyed, all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived the deſire of freedom; and Edward, finding that their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, affected to treat them on the footing of equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he aimed at the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen; for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed, attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body; Edward was obliged to divide his army, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with great loſs, but made an orderly retreat. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh, but he was betrayed, and ungenerouſly put to death at London as a traitor. Edward died himſelf, as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he aſſumed the crown; but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were ſent priſoners to England where his beſt friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death; yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the caſtle of Stirling, and im-

proved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who at laſt raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed an exaggeration: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all veterans, bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny. Edward led his hoſt towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce; who had choſen, with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and ſir Giles Argenton; thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother, ſir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned the beſt knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolf, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories recorded in hiſtory. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men while their own exceeded not 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an advantageous peace with England; and died, in 1328, with the reputation of being the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as ambitious as any of his predeceſſors, of making the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol, the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David, however, had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace, without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having married the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an intention to ſeize the crown. Robert, on this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering

monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined, therefore, to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life, he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. promiſed to equal the greateſt of his anceſtors in warlike and civil virtues, when he was killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh. Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, during which he was ſlain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; loved magnificence, delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected commerce, which greatly increaſed in his reign; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family-diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and in the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married a daughter of the king of France; and after her death, a lady of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the induſtry of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all of whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs: he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the inſtigation of the clergy, to a religious perſecution, though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon its retreat, James ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he followed at a ſmall diſtance, ready to join them. Soon after he gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion, and conferring the command on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman. The army were ſo much diſguſted at this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeized the Scots, who immediately took flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole Engliſh army. Hatred to the king, and contempt of their general produced an effect, to which there is no parallel in hiſtory. They overcame the fear of death,

and the love of liberty; and ten thouſand men ſurrendered to a number ſo far inferior, without ſtriking a blow. The Engliſh had their choice of priſoners; and ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers were taken, with twenty four pieces of ordnance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her talents, her imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her couſin-german, lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death has given riſe to much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was, an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was detained a priſoner for eighteen years; and, afterwards cruelly beheaded by queen Elizabeth, in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age. This murder was perpetrated without even a pretence of juſtice. The beauty, the magnanimity, and the ſufferings of this unfortunate woman excited univerſal compaſſion; and the unaffected agonies of remorſe and terror diſplayed by the *maiden* queen, aſcertain, where other evidence is wanting, the innocence and popularity of her defenceleſs victim.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhowing ſome abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns impoveriſhed the people of Scotland, and deſtroyed their independency. The ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a pacific and not unproſperous reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1635, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his deſpotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and his Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him: and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army; they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral unſucceſful attempts to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland.*

The ſtorms which had diſcompoſed the ancient conſtitution of England, had fallen with ſtill greater violence on Scotland. The indignity of a foreign yoke had been added to the other misfortunes of the Scottiſh nation; and their ſpirit ſeemed to have vaniſhed with their independence. The flattering circumſtance of giving a king to their ancient enemies had greatly diminiſhed the martial ardour, which their anceſtors derived from a ſtate of almoſt continual hoſtilities; while the weight which England threw into the ſcale of the crown, enabled the ſovereign to extend to a kind of tyranny what formerly was a very limited power. The enthuſiaſm which Calviniſm introduced among the vulgar, raiſed their confidence without preſerving their intrepidity. They loſt their reverence for authority in ſpiritual pride; and the nobles, finding themſelves no longer followed or obeyed, ſunk into the ſuperſtition of the mob, to recover a part of their power. The whole ſeries of public

* Here ends the Scotch history in the London edition of 1792. The remainder has been compiled by the American editor, principally from Macpherson's history.

events in the reign of Charles the ſecond, forms a melancholy atteſtation of the juſtice of theſe remarks. On the reſtoration of monarchy, it was a debate in the court of London, whether the Scots ſhould be reſtored to their independence, or retained under the yoke impoſed by Cromwell. Charles inclined to the ancient conſtitution of goverment; and a parliament aſſembled at Edinburgh in the end of the year 1660. Their proceedings may be cited as an example of the vileſt dregs of deſpotiſm. The authority of the crown was reſtored in its utmoſt extent. An additional revenue of forty thouſand pounds was granted to the king for life. All the acts, which limited the prerogative, were repealed. All acts of parliaments paſſed ſince the year 1633, were reſcinded. The presbyterian ſyſtem of church government was virtually diſſolved by this act; and the fabric of deſpotiſm was cemented with blood. The earl of Argyle was condemned and executed, as was likewiſe Guthrie, a preacher of uncommon petulance. The civil affairs of Scotland were managed with preciſion. Diſorder and oppreſſion prevailed in her religious concerns. The fanaticiſm of the vulgar induced vaſt numbers of them to adhere to the covenant, and the perſecutions and inſurrections which followed, compoſe almoſt the only materials for a hiſtory of this miſerable reign. Charles, whoſe indolence has been ſtrangely miſtaken for humanity, was himſelf one of the moſt unprincipled and unfeeling of mankind. His Scottiſh miniſtry were altogether worthy of ſuch a ſovereign. A high commiſſion was inſtituted for enforcing the rigorous laws againſt diſſenters. The civil power enforced by its authority the decrees of this court of inquiſition. The people, inflamed by oppreſſion, roſe in the weſtern counties. Ill armed and worſe conducted, they advanced to Edinburgh; and in a tumultuary ſkirmiſh, were defeated at Pentland hills, on the 28th of November, 1666. Uncommon ſeverities followed. Ruinous fines were impoſed on thoſe presbyterians who met to worſhip in private houſes; but field preachers and their hearers were declared to be puniſhable with death. Political miſery was ſeen in every form. The year 1676 added the infamy of burning old women for witchcraft, to other acts of barbarous deſpotiſm.

In 1679, archbiſhop Sharpe, one of the leaders of the perſecution againſt the presbyterians, was murdered: he had formerly been a presbyterian, but had firſt betrayed, and then deſerted his party. An inſurrection in the month of June of this year, was ſuppreſſed by the duke of Monmouth, who defeated the malecontents at Bothwell bridge. In 1681, a new teſt was paſſed by the Scottiſh parliament, which all perſons in the ſervice of government were compelled to take. This teſt being ill conceived and worſe expreſſed, contained many glaring contradictions, and groſs abſurdities. The earl of Argyle was at this time tried and condemned for high treaſon under the auſpices of the duke of York, who reſided in Scotland. The accuſation was founded on the moſt frivolous pretences. The earl eſcaped into Holland; his eſtate was forfeited; the whole nation was divided into two religious parties. The high-churchmen poſſeſſed the whole power of government and levelled its whole force againſt perſons whoſe deſperate zeal ought to have been the object of pity, rather than of puniſhment. Charles died of an apoplexy on the 6th of Febuary 1685, and the earl of Argyle ſoon after landed in Scotland. A feeble and ill-managed inſurrection conducted him to the block. Such of his adherents as fell into the hands of government were pardoned and diſmiſſed, an act of mercy which exhibits a ſtriking contraſt to the treatment of the rebels in England, who were defeated a few weeks after, under the duke of Monmouth.

In April 1686, James called a parliament, and under pretence of unlimited toleration, wanted to ſecure to the Roman Catholics an undiſturbed exerciſe of their religion. The idea was too liberal and philoſophical for the ſeventeenth century. This propoſal was rejected with the ſame ſpirit of bigotry with which it was demanded. A profuſion of promiſes were made by the earl of Moray, his majeſty's commiſ-

ſioner, as to the ſecurity of political freedom, and commercial advantages; but no temporal motive could induce theſe zealots to ſuffer any degree of indulgence to the Roman catholics. The impatience of James to patroniſe his favourite religion, overleaped this feeble barrier. On the 18th of February 1687, a proclamation was iſſued at Edinburgh, granting a general toleration to all religious ſects, ſuſpending all penal and diſabling laws, annulling and diſcharging all oaths by way of teſt, and breaking down all diſtinctions between ſubject and ſubject. This meaſure was not acceptable even to the perſecuted presbyterians. James had, ſince his acceſſion to the crown, relaxed in a great degree the ſeverity of his government. But he employed Roman catholics, as his principal agents in the adminiſtration of the kingdom. This weakneſs afforded univerſal offence. The prince of Orange had emiſſaries in the country, who were forward in exciting diſcontent; and the injuries which the presbyterians, who compoſed the great body of the nation, had received in a ſeries of twenty-four years, were too numerous and too attrocious to be forgotten or pardoned. When the ſtadtholder, therefore, landed in England, his arrival was announced in the weſtern counties of Scotland with a tranſport of joy. The indignant voice of the people, like the thunder of omnipotence, was heard with awe from one end of the kingdom to the other. A convention parliament aſſembled; and after a farce of oppoſition, too trivial to deſerve a more diſtinct notice here, the members declared that James had *forefaulted* his right to the crown. The adoption of this word, peculiar to the Scottiſh idiom, implied that he had forfeited for himſelf and his poſterity, all title to the throne. It is almoſt needleſs to add that his daughter Mary, and her husband the prince of Orange, were declared his ſucceſſors. There has been much wrangling among the lawyers to determine whether this ſtep was or was not an election

The Scots had but ſmall reaſon to rejoice in their change of a maſter. William was juſt as fond of power as his predeceſſor. The lords of the articles had long been deemed, what they plainly were, a nuiſance deſtructive to the firſt principles of a free parliament; yet the abolition of that inſtitution could not be obtained from the king. If the nation had acted with any degree of common ſenſe, they would have adopted this, and every other regulation which they regarded as proper, without enquiring for his majeſty's opinion.

Graham, viſcount of Dundee, determined to oppoſe the elevation of William. He collected about three thouſand Highlanders, and, on the 17th of July, 1689, gave battle, at Killicranky, to five thouſand of the royal forces. At eight of the clock in the evening, he began the attack at the head of his cavalry. He had no cannon, and only forty pounds weight of powder. But his infantry ruſhed on the enemy with their broad ſwords, and their uſual intrepidity was attended with their uſual ſucceſs. Two thouſand of the regulars were cut to pieces. But Dundee himſelf was mortally wounded, and he expired next morning. Before his death, he wrote a letter to James, announcing his victory. The prediction of William, who knew his talents, was quickly verified. "The war is at an end," ſaid he, "for Dundee is dead."

Some cabals in favour of the exiled monarch ſoon after took place, but ended in nothing. On the 13th of February 1692, the memorable maſſacre of Glenco called forth the aſtoniſhment and the horror of Europe. In the preceding Auguſt, a proclamation of indemnity had been iſſued, to ſuch of the adherents of James in Scotland, as ſhould take the oath to William and Mary before the laſt day of December. Macdonald of Glenco was prevented by a deep fall of ſnow from reaching Inverary on that day, to make his ſubmission in a legal manner before the ſheriff depute of the county of Argyle, His oath of allegiance was nevertheleſs accepted: and a captain of Argyle's regiment, with two ſubalterns, and an hundred and twenty ſoldiers, were received ſome time after as gueſts in the village of Glenco, with all

that hoſpitality for which the Scotch highlanders have long been celebrated. What follows is a picture in miniature of the maſſacre of Paris; and William is diſtinguiſhed from Charles the ninth, rather by the extent than the humanity of his operations. The officers, on the very night of the maſſacre, paſſed the evening at cards, in Macdonald's houſe. In the night a party of ſoldiers called in a friendly manner at his door: they were inſtantly admitted; Macdonald, as he was riſing from his bed to receive his gueſts, was ſhot through the back. His wife was ſtriped naked by the ſoldiers, who tore the rings off her fingers with their teeth. Neither age nor infirmity were ſpared. Some women in defending their children, were killed. Boys, imploring mercy, were ſhot by officers on whoſe knees they hung. In one place, nine perſons, as they ſat enjoying themſelves at table, were ſhot dead by the aſſaſſins. Several who fled to the mountains, periſhed of cold and hunger. Four hundred men, who had been detached to intercept ſuch fugitives as might eſcape immediate ſlaughter, entered the valley next day: they carried off the cattle and other ſpoil, and reduced the houſes to aſhes. It is to be obſerved, that the orders for this maſſacre were ſigned above, and below, with the hand of William *of glorious memory*.

The memory of this cataſtrophe was, however, in ſome part obliterated by another of a more extenſive kind. One Paterſon, who had been the chief inſtrument in eſtabliſhing the bank of England, had framed a mercantile project on a more comprehenſive ſcale for Scotland. Such Engliſh merchants as had been hitherto diſappointed in their ſchems of forming a new Eaſt India company, gave their conſent to his plan. The ſcheme was to eſtabliſh one ſettlement at Darien on the eaſt ſide of the iſthmus of America, and another on the oppoſite ſide, toward the South ſea. This plan was laid before the king and inſtructions were prepared and ſigned, empowering his majeſty's commiſſioner to the Scotch parliament, to give his aſſent to any bill for the encouragement of trade. The bait was greedily ſeized. The bill was the price of blood ſhed at Glenco, and tended in ſome meaſure to ſooth the diſcontents of the people. On the 14th of December 1695, the Engliſh houſe of peers ſent down to the commons an addreſs to the king againſt this act paſſed in favour of the Scots. The commons concurred with the peers. The two houſes attended the king with their addreſs. His anſwer was, "that he had been ill ſerved in Scotland; but that he hoped ſome remedy might be found to the evil, of which they complained." The commons, in the full ſpirit of uſurpation, voted, that the directors of the Scotiſh company ſhould be impeached of high crimes and miſdemeanors. What right had they to interfere in the commercial concerns of an independent nation, or what would they have ſaid, had the Scottiſh parliament impeached the directors of the bank of England? On the continent of Europe, and, in particular, at Hamburgh and in Holland, the moſt perfidious artifices were employed to blaſt the credit of the Scottiſh company; the moſt villainous falſehoods were propagated by the king's envoys with impunity and with triumph. They even diſowned the authority of the acts of parliament and the letters patent, upon which the company was founded,

On the 17th of July, 1698, a body of coloniſts ſailed from the Frith of Forth, and arrived at the iſthmus of America. They purchaſed from the natives a right of ſettlement, and diſembarked on the 4th of November. They were, however, proſcribed by the king and his Engliſh parliament. The governors of Engliſh colonies in North America, and the Weſt Indies, were prohibited from giving them the leaſt aſſitance, upon any account whatever. It is hardly poſſible for the human mind to conceive a more infamous tranſaction. The company had been conſtituted by a royal charter; and a ſociety of men acting under the ſanction of royal authority, were treated as exiles and criminals by the public officers of that very government. The adventurers were attacked by the Spaniards in their new ſettlement, and were almoſt extirpated by the ſword, by want, and by diſeaſes of the

climate. The treachery of their Dutch deliverer, excited in Scotland an exceſs of indignation, but the ſtorm fell by degrees. Five hundred thouſand pounds were ſquandered on this romantic and diſaſtrous expedition.

This tragical ſcene, however, is trifling when compared to another, which has been recorded with leſs clamorous lamentation. During the war with France, a famine broke out in Britain, which laſted for four years. Proviſions were in England double, and in Scotland, quadruple their common price. In one year, eighty thouſand Scots periſhed of hunger. A tenth part of the expenſe of one of the campaigns would have ſaved that iſland from ſo dreadful a curſe. In Aberdeenſhire, the conſequences of this famine may ſtill be traced. Whole families expired together, and the boundaries of deſerted farms were forgotten. To aſcertain them is at this day ſometimes an object of diſpute. The land bears the marks of the plough; but, having been ſo long neglected, has relapſed into its original ſtate of barrenneſs; and is now covered with heath, among which may be diſcovered the remains of the dwelling houſes of the exterminated inhabitants. Theſe extraordinary circumſtances, unobſerved by the former writer, we give on the information of Dr. Anderſon, a gentleman long and juſtly reſpected in the literary world.

The next remarkable event in the hiſtory of Scotland is the union of the two kingdoms. This project was, by a very ſingular fatality, extremely unpopular in both nations. To enter into a detail of the obliquities of this buſineſs, would extend the preſent article beyond its proper limits. It was found requiſite for the convenience of a few political leaders, and was accompliſhed by a ſcene of corruption, which would not have diſgraced the experience or abilities of a Walpole.

The whole negociation bears on its very face the ſtamp of iniquity. The utmoſt care was employed to conceal its infant progreſs from the Scottiſh nation, and the bargain was at laſt patched up with the utmoſt precipitation and ſecrecy in the Scotch parliament. The public were inflamed into a tranſport of fury, but as nothing leſs than a revolt could diſſolve it, the Scots wiſely choſe to ſhun the horrors of a civil war. It is plain, however, that the treaty was in itſelf altogether illegal. It exactly reſembles the ſale of an eſtate without the conſent or knowledge of its owner. The Scotch members of parliament had been authoriſed by their conſtituents to aſſemble for the common buſineſs of the nation; inſtead of which, they clandeſtinely transferred its independence to the beſt bidder. Some of thoſe who had been the moſt forward in promoting the union, were, not long after, equally ſolicitous to diſſolve it; but this idea was attended with numerous difficulties, and was therefore laid aſide. It would be raſh to affirm, that the union was, upon the whole, unfortunate for Scotland; and it is equally abſurd, to aſcribe to this event, as ſome writers do, every ſubſequent advance which that country has made with regard to its internal proſperity.

From the union downwards, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes ſo intimately blended with that of England, that they can hardly be diſtinctly treated with propriety. In 1715, a rebellion was excited by the deſpotic inſolence of the whig miniſters of George the firſt. On his majeſty's acceſſion, a loyal addreſs of congratulation to the throne, was drawn up and ſigned by above an hundred Highland chieftains. This piece had been intercepted and ſuppreſſed in its way to the king, who was taught to conſider the enemies of his miniſters, as his own. The pride of the addreſſers was offended at the ſuppoſed neglect of their ſovereign, and a civil war enſued. Even the earl of Mar had made the moſt humiliating advances to George the firſt; but meeting with a repulſe, he was driven by deſpair, to the wretched expedient of taking arms. The addreſs of the Highland gentlemen lay concealed from, and unknown to, the world for many years, but has lately been publiſhed by the preſent earl of Buchan, to whom the republic of letters is under conſiderable obligations.

The next event in the history of Scotland, which claims our notice, is the mob, or rather conspiracy, which ended in hanging John Porteous, one of the captains of the city guard of Edinburgh. In 1736, at the execution of a smuggler, this ruffian had been pelted by the rabble, to whom he was odious. Without farther ceremony, he instantly returned this mark of distinction by a volley of musket balls. His soldiers, unwilling to embrue their hands in the blood of their fellow citizens, raized the muzzles of their pieces, and fired over the heads of the croud. But unhappily a number of people were killed or wounded, who had been looking from their windows at the execution. Porteous was immediately arrested, tried, convicted, and condemned to be hanged. George the second was on one of his trips to Hanover; but a reprieve was obtained from queen Caroline. The inhabitants of Edinburgh were determined, however, not to be disappointed of their vengeance by such a questionable act of clemency. At ten o'clock in the evening, they assembled in large numbers, and with great deliberation seized and shut the city gates, to prevent interruption from some troops which were quartered in the suburbs. At the same time they surrounded and disarmed the city guard, which probably required no violent exertion. They next broke open the doors of the prison, dragged the prisoner to the common place of execution, and hanged him. This affair, in itself of little consequence, becomes more so, because it serves to show the Scottish nation the insignificance or rather meanness of their condition. A reward of two hundred pounds was offered for the discovery of any one of the offenders, and every minister was enjoined to read a proclamation to this purpose, on Sunday after sermon, to his parishioners, for the whole year. This command was evidently a wanton act of despotism, and was very badly observed. Porteous, himself, had deserved a gibbet by almost every action of his life; and his destiny was at worst as irregular, but striking act of justice. No discovery could be made, concerning the affair; and this additional mark of the sentiments of the public still farther exasperated the soreness of female pride, and the malevolence of national antipathy. Lord Carteret, in the house of peers, proposed, to forfeit the charter of Edinburgh. And a bill passed both houses, and received the royal assent, for inflicting an exemplary vengeance on that city. But as the measure had been opposed with uncommon spirit, the business was suffered to fall to the ground.

In 1745, a second rebellion was excited by the grandson of James the second. At the head of three or four thousand half-armed mountaineers, he advanced as far as Derby, and even defeated the royal forces in several engagements. His military career was terminated by the battle, or rather, the massacre, of Culloden. Almost the whole of the rebels were exterminated, and among other stupendous acts of atrocity, between thirty and forty of these miserable wretches, who escaped the carnage of the field, and had been admitted as prisoners, were some days after put to the bayonet in a barn, when their wounds had received a second dressing. A detail of enormities of this kind is to be found in Smollet's history of England, and Arnet's history of Edinburgh; to these writers we must refer the reader for farther particulars on this shocking subject.

From sir John Sinclair's history of the public revenue it appears, that considerably more than a million sterling is annually produced by the taxes of all kinds, and that of this sum, after deducting the total expense of the civil and military establishments, about seven hundred thousand pounds are annually sent to England. Prodigious sums are also constantly transmitted to that country, for manufactures of every kind, and the residence of great numbers of the nobility and gentry of Scotland at London, is another drawback on its wealth and prosperity.

Some recent attempts have been made in Scotland to excite in the people a spirit for reformation. Political topics have been treated with much boldness and ingenuity in a variety of newspapers and pamphlets; and on the other hand, numer-

ous profecutions have been commenced againſt the authors, printers, and bookſellers. Mr. Sheridan lately obſerved, in a ſpeech to the houſe of commons, that the people of Scotland had about as much influence in the government of Britain, as the miners of Siberia had in the government of Ruſſia. The parallel is perfectly juſt; but what is to be the ſequel of the preſent diſcontents, time only can determine.

ENGLAND.

Extent and situation.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 380	between	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth 300		2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude.

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day, in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt, in the ſouthern, near 8 hours. It is bounded, on the North by Scotland; on the Eaſt, by the German ocean; on the weſt by St. George's channel; and on the ſouth by the Engliſh channel, which parts it from France. It contains 49,450 ſquare miles.

This ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather; ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying on the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject: and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

Names and divisions, ancient and modern. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*: ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which poured a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into the iſland. In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree to this etymology. The weſtern track of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers* and was, inhabited by the old natives of England, who were driven thither by the Romans.

When theſe conquerors provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom;
2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, Wales included; and,
3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and eſtabliſhed themſelves there, in the year 582, their leaders, after the manner of the other northern

conquerors, appropriated the countries which each had been the moſt active to acquiring; and the whole formed a heptarchy, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	Canterbury.
2. South-Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex	Chicheſter
	Surry	Southwark.
3. Eaſt-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk	Norwich,
	Suffolk	Bury St. Edmund's
	Cambridge	Cambridge
	The Iſle of Ely	Ely.
4. Weſt-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall	Launceſton
	Devon	Exeter
	Dorſet	Dorcheſter
	Somerſet	Bath
	Wilts	Saliſbury
	Hants	Wincheſter
	Berks	Abingdon.
5. Northumbland, founded by Ida in 574 and ended in 792.	Lancaſter	Lancaſter
	York	York
	Durham	Durham
	Cumberland	Carliſle
	Weſtmoreland	Appleby
	Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh	Newcaſtle.
6. Eaſt-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Eſſex	London.
	Middleſex and part of Hertford	
	The other part of Hertford	Hertford
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Glouceſter	Glouceſter
	Hereford	Hereford
	Worceſter	Worceſter
	Warwick	Warwick
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter
	Rutland	Oakham
	Northampton	Northampton
	Lincoln	Lincoln
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon
	Bedford	Bedford
	Buckingham	Aylesbury
	Oxford	Oxford
	Stafford	Stafford
	Derby	Derby
	Salop	Shrewsbury
	Nottingham	Nottingham
	Cheſter	Cheſter.

I have been the more ſolicitous to preſerve theſe diviſions, as they account for different local cuſtoms, and many very eſſential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their riſe from different Saxon inſtitutions. Since the Norman invaſion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, except Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſſes of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the capital. Theſe circuits are :

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Eſſex	Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Biſhop's-Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet.
	Kent	Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton.
	Surry	Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking.
	Suſſex	Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt-Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk circuit.	Bucks	Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, Biggleſwade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbich.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Eaſtbergholt.
	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
3. Oxford circuit.	Oxon	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Tame.
	Berks	Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter, Tewkeſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Campden, Stow, Berkeley, Durſley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield.
	Worceſter	Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs.
	Salop	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whitchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough.
	Derby	Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſworth, Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balſover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle.
	Rutland	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
5. Weſtern Circuit.	Hants	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Arlesford, and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the iſle of Wight.
	Wilts	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter.
	Dorſet	Dorcheſter, Lime, Sherborn, Shaftſbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerſet	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn port, Glaſtonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Wachet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome.
	Devon	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern circuit.	York	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesly, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirske, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Aukland.
	Northumb.	Newcastle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
	Westmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Londsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Counties not included in the circuits.	Middlesex	London, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodisham, and Haulton.

Circuits of WALES.

Circuits.		Chief Towns.
North-east circuit.	Flint	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-west circuit.	Anglesey	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-east circuit.	Radnor	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansey.
South-west circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
South-weſt circuit continued.	Cardigan	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarth.	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Llandilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In ENGLAND.

40	Counties which ſend up to parliament	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four)	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each	334 burgeſſes.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrers and Monmouth), one each	5 burgeſſes.
2	Univerſities	4 repreſentatives.
8	Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford,) two each	16 barons.

WALES.

12	Counties	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none),	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires	30 knights.
67	Cities and boroughs	15 burgeſſes.
	Total	558

Beſides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county, have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex: the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though abſolutely annihilated, like Old Sarum, which does not contain even a ſingle houſe, they ſend burgeſſes to parliament. In other words, they are ſent by the proprietor of the eſtate, in which thoſe nominal boroughs are ſituated; ſo that in fact, ſuch members repreſent nobody. This abuſe has, of late, begun to excite univerſal attention in England. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at preſent hath, a biſhop; for if the biſhopric be diſſolved, yet the city remains.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which their reſpective inhabitants have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are there carried to a

much greater degree of perfection than they are in moſt other parts of the world, if we except China. We cannot enter upon particular proofs of theſe improvements. All that can be ſaid, is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſons happen, England produces corn, not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring in large ſums of ready money for her exports. The benefits from theſe exports have ſometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently ſpared: for which reaſon exportations have been regulated; but whether the bounty on exportation is advantageous, has been violently conteſted. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated there with ſucceſs. If any farther proof of this ſhould be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by 1,000,000 of inhabitants, are plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within a few miles diſtance.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already ſaid concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours, wafted from the Atlantic ocean; but theſe are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is, to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, rather diſagreeable than unhealthy. The weather is exceſſively capricious, and ſo unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to repair to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved of the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter ſucceed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May, the face of the country is often covered with hoary froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold; and upon an average, September, and next to it October, are two of the moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, hot, temperate, and mild weather. This inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearances of the ſeaſons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and ſeldom with ſcarcity.

The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſtinguiſhing palate may perceive, that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is uſed as commonly as any other, for medicinal purpoſes.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS. The induſtry of the Engliſh ſupplies the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even exceeds them. No country

in the world can exceed the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both forming proſpects ſurpaſſing the pictures of fancy; the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of encloſures and plantations, the noble ſeats, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by deſcription. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can better prove the extent of Engliſh induſtry, than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour.

Though England is full of delightful riſing-grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains of great altitude. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, Skiddaw in Cumberland, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be termined mountainous.

Rivers and lakes.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter, and after receiving many ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor; from thence to Kingſton, where it formerly met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; then it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England, among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt mentioned place. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot ſurpaſs, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton and Hampton-court have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides. The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham.

The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales, becomes navigable at Welch-Pool, runs eaſt to Shrewsbury, then, turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon: after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction, is, near its mouth, increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol-channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle under Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that country to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are, firſt, the Ouſe, which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from weſt to

eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire, from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and, paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and, paſſing by Perſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea; the Merſey from the ſouth-eaſt to the north weſt through Cheſhire; and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town. The Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and, indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens were, in former ages, frequent in England. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. Theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon unite, and form a lake of forty or fifty miles in circumference. The northern counties of Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſhire, contain ſeveral ſmall lakes, which are remarkable for their beauty. The various diſpoſition of their banks, ſometimes cultivated, often covered with wood, or enlivened by herds, the intermixture of hill and dale, rude rocks and green mountains, render the ſcenery of this part of England ſcarcely inferior to that of Switzerland or Italy.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England converted immenſe tracts of grounds into foreſts, for the amuſement of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves: ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt laws; and juſtices in eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe tracts were diſforeſted; and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than ſixty-nine, are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, Dean, and Sherewood. Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times, England contained large foreſts of cheſnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old.

Metals and minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall are the principal. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before the chriſtian æra; and ſince the Engliſh have manufactured their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore, called mundic, is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about eighty years ago. Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The Corniſh miners have been reported to amount to the incredible number of 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the ore is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales, by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England produce marble; but the beſt kind which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of free-ſtone are found in many

places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield alum and ſalt. The Engliſh fuller's earth is of ſuch conſequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. Pit or ſea-coal is found in many counties of England: but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coal to other countries is very conſiderable. It is affirmed that they might be found in the vicinity of the metropolis.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. Nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peaſe, beans, vetches, oats, and other grains growing in the kingdom. Inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members commonly print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhow that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. Apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarins, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortulan productions, grow there, and large quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordſhire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is by many preferred to French white wine. The Engliſh have made the different fruits of the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot beds and other artificial means. The Engliſh pine apples are delicious. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed there. The kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſalads.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful than in the cultivation of graſſes for meliorating the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which now form a conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scots and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt in the world. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry render them formidable in war: and an Engliſh hunter will make incredible exertions in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw equipages in the ſtreets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horſes has become a conſiderable article of commerce. The breed of aſſes and mules begins likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are generally divided into two kinds; thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. In ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs; and in Lincolnſhire particularly, it is not uncommon for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 50l. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the Downs, where they have what the farmers call a ſhort bite, is little inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies; but, either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull dogs upon one of the fierceſt lions in the tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The maſtiff has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England. What is obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this animal are extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, widgeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, woodpigeons, hawks of diſterent kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds. Canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and crawfiſh, beſides a delicate lake-fiſh, called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as ſome ſay, no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkate, ſoles. The John Dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell fiſhes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel. The Engliſh have been, perhaps, with great juſtice, accuſed of not paying proper attention to their fiſheries. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London is ſold by the Dutch to the Engliſh boats, and that induſtrious people even take them upon the Engliſh coaſts. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within theſe forty years paſt to this important concern. Many public-ſpirited noblemen and gentlemen formed themſelves into a company for carrying on a Britiſh fiſhery. Large ſums were ſubſcribed and paid with unbounded generoſity. Buſſes and other veſſels were built, and the moſt pleaſing proſpects of ſucceſs preſented themſelves to the public. But they were diſappointed.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, the emigrations of natives to the colonies, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are circumſtances which render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, we are apt to think that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the laſt annually employed about two hundred thouſand Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scots and Iriſh, by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very

near that number. The decay of population, was indeed, ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as during the wars in queen Ann's reign; though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice. At the ſame time, we are not of opinion, that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind; but this advantage has been ſaid to be more than counterbalanced by the practice of engroſſing farms. That the population of England has for a long time paſt been increaſing with rapidity is now aſcertained beyond all contradiction. Deciſive evidences are collected by George Chalmers, eſq. in his comparative Eſtimate. The increaſe of people by emigration is evident from the numerous foreign names upon the pariſh books, and public liſts compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

The number of inhabitants in England and Wales muſt exceed ſeven millions. Some may ſuppoſe this to be too large a calculation; and it muſt be admitted, that England has been exceedingly drained by the late war. From the continual acceſſion of ſtrangers and other obvious cauſes, it is impoſſible to eſtimate the population of London by rules derived from the proportions of births and burials. Beſides, at the very gates of that metropolis, one hundred thouſand inhabitants are not included in the bills of mortality.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well ſized, regularly featured, and moſt commonly fair and florid in their complexions. The women, in their ſhapes, features, and complexions, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. Of all European nations, next to the Swiſs and Dutch, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people, of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; hence before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities, which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. In ſhort, many of the Engliſh feel, as if it really exiſted, every evil in mind, body, and eſtate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are ſenſible of this abſurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, ſtriving to baniſh it by diſſipation, riot, intemperance, and diverſions. They are fond, for the ſame reaſon, of convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cures for the mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, ſo that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the country which they viſit, but ſometimes alſo for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at more advanced periods of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſit them; and the effects of this intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially ſince it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen, who do not ſtrike into high walks of life, affect rather what is called a ſnug way of living. They underſtand, as well as any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates, which they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe; it has, however, been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be; but on the other hand, the few connexions which they form, are often ſincere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend into the lower ranks, and are diſcernible among tradeſmen. A good economiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is frequently, when turned of fifty, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is, for the moſt part, ſuited to his circumſtances.

Few people know better than tradeſmen, and men of buſineſs in England, how to pay court to their cuſtomers and employers. Thoſe arts they conſider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too often leads them into a contrary extreme. This carries them to that petulance, which is ſo offenſive to ſtrangers, and which, though encouraged, through the want of education, has its root in noble principles, badly underſtood, and in that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property.

The humanity of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the ſubſcriptions for public charities. An Engliſhman is ſuſceptible of all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality, that often proves injurious to induſtry; becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of age or ſickneſs. The inſtitutions of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The ſums beſtowed on building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, beget heat and cabals, very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and even to party conſiderations. Notwithſtanding thoſe proviſions which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England abound with objects of diſtreſs who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice puniſhable.

From an exact ſtatement publiſhed by ſir John Sinclair, it appears, that in England the poor rates extend to more than two million ſterling per annum. It is not likely, that one half of this ſum has at any time been honeſtly applied to charitable purpoſes. The managers of the poor's box differ but in the magnitude of their depredations, from the managers of the national exchequer. In that country the veſtry of a pariſh are, in the moſt alarming ſenſe of the word, "the ſons of public rapine;" and a people, in ſome other reſpects ſo jealous of their liberty, ſubmit themſelves to be plundered at the diſcretion of a band of puny deſpots, who profeſſedly fatten on their ſpoils. It is hard to ſay whether the poor rates are moſt exceptionable in a moral, or in a political point of view. They deſerve chiefly to be regarded as a fund for the ſupport of the idle, at the expenſe of the induſtrious. The proſpect of this reſource in old age or ſickneſs, preſents to the labouring claſſes, an irriſiſtable temptation to extravagance and debauchery. Their hopes are frequently diſappointed. It is common to entruſt the work-houſes of a pariſh to perſons, who engage to ſupport the paupers at a certain price, and whoſe intereſt, therefore, lies in providing for them as cheaply as poſſible. A more ſucceſsful plan could not have been deviſed for the utter extinction of virtuous ſenſibility. Neither of the contracting parties can be ſuppoſed to give themſelves much concern for objects from whom the one reaps nothing but expenſe and vexation, and whom

the other regards as a branch of merchandiſe. The ſituation of the poor under ſuch patronage is often ſo wretched that they chooſe to prefer begging in the ſtreets. It ſometimes happens that men in decent circumſtances are not aſhamed to tell their aged or infirm parents, that they muſt apply to the pariſh veſtry for ſubſiſtance, becauſe already paying poor rates, they cannot be expected to maintain double burdens. Such language ſeldom excites either ſurpriſe or compaſſion. The levying of this ſtrange tax is a ſource of inceſſant complaint, and obſtinate litigation. The inhabitants of a pariſh are always anxious to diminiſh their ſhare of it, by denying that the pauper has obtained a ſettlement, or, in other words, that he is legally entitled to demand their charity. Millions of lawſuits are engendered to determine to what pariſh perſons of this kind belong; and it is not unuſual for two contending veſtries to ſquander upon ſuch a queſtion, ten, fifty, or an hundred times more than the beggar himſelf could ever have coſt either party. A reader who is converſant with Engliſh newſpapers, muſt have met with an account of caſes, where a wretched victim has been dragged in the depth of winter, upon a cart or wheel-barrow, through perhaps a dozen pariſhes in ſucceſſion, without obtaining admittance under a ſingle roof, and who has at laſt expired of cold and hunger, before the point could be decided, what veſtry was obliged by law to relieve him! As the regulations reſpecting the poor exhibit an abyſs of oppreſſion, much has been written to expoſe their abuſes. Lord Kaimes, Dr. Davenant, Dr. Adam Smith, Dr. Wendeborn, Dr. Anderſon, ſir John Sinclair, and a multitude of other intelligent authors, have united to condemn them in the ſevereſt ſtile of reprobation. Dr. Franklin, that memorable maſter of the ſcience of human life, gave it as his opinion, that the extravagant ſums annually collected in England for the poor, increaſed at once, their numbers and their miſery, and that it might be for the benefit of the nation, if poor rates were forever aboliſhed, and the diſtribution of charities left entirely to every man's diſcretion.

In Scotland, poor rates are abſolutely unknown, unleſs in Edinburgh, and perhaps two or three others of the larger towns; and even in theſe the tax is extremely moderate. Yet itinerant beggars are perhaps leſs numerous, and certainly for the moſt part far leſs clamorous and worthleſs, than the ſame claſs frequently are in England, where a million of poor people are ſupported at the public expenſe.* "The lower "claſſes have no anxiety to be frugal or provident; ſo that when trade becomes "dull or ſcanty, thoſe who maintained themſelves by their labour, muſt either beg, "or obtain ſubſiſtence for themſelves and their families from the pariſh. The wa-"termen of the Thames, whoſe gains are very ſufficient for their livelihood, when "the river is frozen, or covered with ſhoals of ice, are often ſeen dragging a boat "or little ſhip through the ſtreets of London, and ſoliciting alms of the public."§ The ſame ſpirit pervades the whole body of manufactures in every county of the kingdom. In Scotland, on the contrary, the pooreſt workman conſiders it as a kind of diſgrace to accept of charity, and he therefore ſtrains every nerve to eſcape the painful neceſſity of aſking it. This is one of the principal reaſons why the labouring part of the poor in North Britain, are remarkably ſuperior in ſobriety, docility, and economy to the ſame rank on the ſouth of Tweed. A tradeſman in any tolerable circumſtances, who ſhould ſuffer his parent to linger in an alms-houſe, or accept the pittance of an inſolent overſeer, would himſelf be avoided and marked out as a monſter. Though Scotland is, upon the whole, infinitely leſs opulent than her ſouthern rival, yet the former country contains much leſs of what may be ſtrictly termed the laſt extremity of want and wretchedneſs. This advantage muſt, in a great meaſure, be aſcribed to the excellent conſtitution

* Wendeborn's view of England, vol. I. page 120, 8vo editio.
§ Ibid. p. 114.

of the national church, which is founded on the moſt genuine republican principles. A clergyman there, always finds that his duty and his intereſt are inſeparably connected. He viſits in turn every family in his diſtrict. He is intimately acquainted with its character, its reſources and its wants. Aſſiſted by a ſmall number of his moſt reſpectable pariſhioners, who are called a ſynod, he raiſes, with facility, and by a voluntary contribution, whatever ſum is requiſite for the relief of the diſtreſſed; nor is there a farthing embezzled or miſapplied. It is the opinion of many very reſpectable characters on the north of Tweed, that a greater injury can hardly be done to a country pariſh, than that of eſtabliſhing a fund of money for the maintenance of the poor. They aſſign as a reaſon, that ſuch a fund holds up a conſtant object of ſolicitation, of envy and of quarrels; and, in thoſe pariſhes which enjoy it, never fails to multiply mendicant claims in a tenfold proportion to what it is capable of ſupplying. Let any body compare this picture with an Engliſh veſtry, its pampered pride, its litigations, its enormous embezzlement and waſte of public money, its rapacious exactions from the rich, and its inſolence to the poor. Compulſive charity is in all reſpects totally inferior to the voluntary effuſions of human benevolence. A Scottiſh parochial ſynod differs from an Engliſh veſtry, as the frugal and patriotic adminiſtrations of Pennſylvania and of Berne, from the job governments of Ireland and of Turkey. The magiſtrates of a borough in Scotland applied ſome years ago to the Britiſh houſe of peers for a bill to raiſe a poor tax. In anſwer, the lord chancellor Thurlow enquired, whether the people of that country had loſt their ſenſes? It is to be hoped that the united ſtates of America will take warning from the example of England; and extirpate this nuiſance in the bud; nor, with their eyes open, walk into ſuch a gulph.

The unſuſpecting nature of the Engliſh, and their blunt manners, eſpecially of thoſe in the mercantile way, often render them dupes. The loweſt of the people are capable of generous actions; but they frequently make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is, among perſons of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. This offenſive habit ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours and diſtinctions.

The ſame attention to property operates in many other ways among the lower claſſes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and diſregardful of all about them; nor are the higher orders exempt from the ſame folly. The ſame principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the firſt rank have been ſeen laying bets with butchers and coblers at horſe races and boxing matches. Gentlemen and merchants of great property are ſometimes not to be diſtinguiſhed, either by their dreſs or converſation, even from their ſervants; and a wager offered to be ſtaked in ready money againſt a pennyleſs antagoniſt, has been frequently thought a deciſive argument in public company.

An Engliſhman of education and reading, is often ſo ſhy and reſerved in his communications, that a perſon may be in company with him for months, without diſcovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm-yard, or above the capacity of a horſe jockey. This coldneſs is far from being affected, for it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Learning and genius very ſeldom find ſuitable regard even from the firſt-rate Engliſhmen; and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are unacquainted with the author. While the ſtate-diſtinction of whig and tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given to them were but very moderate; and the few who met with preferments in the ſtate

might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that flexibility which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an inſtance, even in the reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money, to aſſiſt him in his travels. Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered but did not accept of the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the wig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a Roman catholic. In the war about the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, England was indebted for ſaving her from the ruinous expenſe of at leaſt one additional campaign, to the pamphlets and diurnal eſſays of Dr. Swift. From his pen the tory miniſtry of queen Anne derived the prolongation of their exiſtence. Yet while dunces were preferred over his head, on the negative merit of orthodoxy, this incomparable writer was conſigned to an inſignificant living. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as others without them, have of late received penſions from the crown; but, from the conduct of ſome of theſe, it ſhould ſeem, that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable; ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic in the extreme. In many of their convivial meetings they are noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are moſt applauded. This is particularly the caſe in large companies; but in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation, and agreeable ſociety, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that is perhaps peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm which few other people can exert. This gives their ſoldiers an advantage in battles which are to be decided by the bayonet. Their paſſive courage is not leſs conſpicuous than their active. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, but for improving the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts, they excel moſt other nations. The intenſe application which they give to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and abſorbs all their other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation.

What I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh is to be underſtood of them in general; for every day produces alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the amazing increaſe of territory as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, have introduced a ſpecies of people, who have become rich without induſtry, and who, by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances. Hitherto the conſequences have been unfavourable, and are likely to be ſtill more ſo; producing a ſpirit of luxury and gaming, attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders to equal or ſurpaſs the nobility and the countries. The plain, frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the accession of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance in dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but in the trading towns all over the kingdom.

The cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the begining of this century, undergone a conſiderable change. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. We have already mentioned ſtag and fox-hunting, and horſe

races, of which Engliſhmen are diſtractedly fond. Somewhat, however, may be offered, by way of apology, for thoſe diverſions; the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the ferocious animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in many parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common, and ſome of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe, not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhows, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt of having carried to what they call perfection. The barbarous diverſion of prize fighting, which was once as frequent in England as the ſhows of gladiators in Rome, is now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſions, except the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament Various diverſions, which are common to other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter was patronized and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national Improvement. The dreadful game acts have torn from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich; for the farmers and country labourers very properly deſtroy the birds in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This deſpotic monopoly has been often attacked, and as often defended.

The diſgraceful practice of boxing continues to be highly popular in England. Thirty, forty, or fifty thouſand pounds are ſometimes betted among the ſpectators on the proweſs of a favourite champion. Ten thouſand perſons have been known to travel fifty miles to attend a match of this kind, which is always accompanied by a variety of inferior battles amongſt the mob. The price for tickets of admiſſion within the paliſadoes is commonly half a guinea, but they are very frequently overturned, in the courſe of the combat, by the impetuous curioſity of the rabble. The high roads from London to the ſcene of action are, on ſuch occaſions crouded with carriages and horſemen; and the inns and ale-houſes, for a conſiderable diſtance round the country, are ſure of being overwhelmed with cuſtomers. It is uſual for the partiſans of each combatant to bring cockades in their pockets, which, if he gains the victory, are transferred to their hats. The firſt nobility and gentry make no ſcruple to officiate on the ſtage as empires, bottle holders, and ſeconds. They commence pupils to the "proffeſſors of the ſcience of pugiliſm," and are ambitious of being conſulted in ſettling the terms of a match. One of the various treatiſes on this *noble* ſubject has been dedicated to lord Barrymore, with rapturous encomiums on his lordſhip's proficiency in the art. The antagoniſts are uſually knocked down ten, fifteen, or twenty times before the conteſt comes to an end; and the preſent heir to the crown was not long ſince a by-ſtander, when a ſhoemaker was ſtruck dead, at the ſecond round. The printers of the newſpapapers diſpatch emiſſaries to the ſpot, and fortunate is he who can obtain by expreſs the moſt early detail of the particulars of the engagement, which are transfered into the monthly magazines for the edification of the next age.

There is one remarkable difference between the characters of the French and Engliſh nations. In the hiſtory of the former; the fair ſex make a buſy and important figure, and have indeed very frequently conducted the van of political tranſactions.

In the latter country, ſuch influence is ſeldom or never heard of. In Scotland or Ireland, an Engliſhman, who behaves properly, may reſide to the end of his life without hearing a ſingle national reproach. But one half of the inhabitants of England diſplay the moſt illiberal contempt for the reſt of mankind, that ever diſtinguiſhed a civilized people. "Some years ago," ſays Dr. Wendeborn, "ſcarcely any body durſt ſpeak French in the ſtreets of London, or in public places, without running the riſk of being inſulted by the populace, who took any foreign language to be French, and frequently ſaluted him, who ſpoke what they did not underſtand, with the appellation of *French dog*." This practice becomes highly ridiculous, when we reflect that London affords a hoſpitable rendezvous to half the ſwindlers, quacks and adventurers in Europe; nor is there any other nation which, both abroad and at home, affords ſuch numerous and egregious bubbles. On the continent, an Engliſh traveller is conſtantly marked out by landlords, tradeſmen, conoiſſeurs and fiddlers, as a victim of peculiar impoſition; though it is true that theſe gentry very frequently find themſelves miſtaken. In the laſt century England poſſeſſed a very extenſive commerce in the Levant, and the polite cuſtom above quoted from Dr. Wendeborn, has very likely been imported from the ſtreets of Conſtantinople, the only other metropolis, at leaſt on the ſurface of this planet, where it is uſual to addreſs ſtrangers with a ſimilar ſalutation.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to other nations, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs and richneſs of attire. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The prince of Wales appeared on a birth-day at court, ſome time ago, in a ſuit of clothes, which coſt eighty thouſand pounds ſterling. The nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean and plain, in the fineſt cloth and beſt of linen.

Religion.] Chriſtianity was introduced into Britain in the ſecond century, and many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies are ſaid to have been chriſtians. John Wickliff, in the reign of Edward the third, was the firſt perſon in that country who publicly oppoſed the doctrines of the church of Rome. The eſtabliſhed church in England is, in its conſtitution, epiſcopal, that is, governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The economy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings, ſome of them extending from three to fourteen hundred pounds a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, with any tolerable decency, eſpecially if he has a family.

This church is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers. The archbiſhops are thoſe of Canterbury and York. The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Salisbury Exeter, Chicheſter, Oxford, Norwich, Glouceſter, Peterborough, Briſtol; and in Wales, St. Davids, Landaff, St. Aſaph and Bangor. The remaining four biſhoprics, viz. Cheſter, Carliſle, Durham, Sodor and Man, are under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of York, who takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England,

ſuch extenſive powers, that, ever ſince the death of Laud, government has thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of moderate principles. The archbiſhop of York has the power of a palatine in Northumberland, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The eccleſiaſtical courts of England are numerous, and their proceedings are remarkably tedious and expenſive.

It would be impracticable to attempt in this place, a definition of the articles of faith of the church of England. The ſubject would require a volume, and might very poſſibly leave our readers at laſt in the dark; as there are frequent and violent diſputes among the clergy of the eſtabliſhed church themſelves, whether a tenet is orthodox or not. It may be ſufficient to ſay, that this church is generally underſtood to differ leſs widely, in ſeveral points of government and diſcipline, from that of Rome, than the followers either of Luther or of Calvin; for which a plain enough reaſon may be aſſigned. The reformation was, in moſt other countries, a work of violence; but in England it was eſtabliſhed by queen Elizabeth with leſs difficulty than in other kingdoms of Europe; and ſhe was ſufficiently politic to offer as little outrage as poſſible to the ancient cuſtoms. Under the head of reformation, we do not rank the ravages and the crimes of Henry the eighth, a worthleſs tyrant, who ſought only to gratify his abominable paſſions. The bias which the clergy had towards the old religion in his reign, and that of his ſon, and even ſo late as Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy, pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches; and in this ſenſe almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England, are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities, and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by the clergy and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt-miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptiſm, and, in the baptiſm of adults, they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly conſidered in general as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeve-

ral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervour and devotion, and that their founder thought the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But even the ſect of methodiſts is divided—not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their ſeparate followers, but very few in London and other places in England. Mr. Whitfield died ſome years ſince; but the places of worſhip erected by him, near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. The late mr. Weſley's followers oppoſe ſome of the Calviniſtic doctrines, particularly that of predeſtination; but they appear ſtill to retain the greater part. He erected a place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and had under him a conſiderable number of preachers, who appeared to ſubmit to their leader implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proſelytes with great induſtry.

The quakers are a religious ſect, which took its riſe about the middle of the laſt century; a ſummary account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the creator and preſerver of the univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his ſon, the Meſſiah and mediator of the new covenant.

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe ſcriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the word of God, and not to the ſcriptures, although they highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the Spirit, from which they were given forth.

"They believe (and it is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man coming into the world, is endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or good ſpirit of Chriſt, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome.

"They think the influence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of worſhip; and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on chriſtians to meet often together, and to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed upon them; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from ſuch a ſenſe to be more acceptable to God, than any performances, however ſpecious, which originate in the will of man.

"As they do not encourage any miniſtry but that which is believed to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone; but as male and female are one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female ſex, as are endued with a right qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

"Reſpecting baptiſm, and what is termed the Lord's ſupper, they believe, that the baptiſm with water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation.

"With reſpect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature through faith.

"They declare againſt oaths, and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the goſpel, from the example of our Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the goſpel.

"They diſuſe the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes or falſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel, and furniture, outward ſhows of rejoicing, and mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they eſteem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a chriſtian life; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world, they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the ſober duties of life.

"This ſociety hath a diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes of which are, the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the ſupport of the teſtimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in faults.

"It is their decided judgment, that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of the ſociety that ſuch be diſowned."

It is well known that William Penn, one of this ſociety, founded the province of Pennſylvania, and introduced into it a plan of civil and religious liberty, at that time unexampled. The government was at firſt for many years chiefly in the hands of the quakers, but their pacific doctrines, however beautiful in theory, were found in practice inconſiſtent with the various exigencies of government. Among other points of diſpute, they abſolutely refuſed their concurrence in the law for eſtabliſhing a militia, which had become inevitably neceſſary for the ſafety of the ſtate. A ſtruggle enſued, in which the party for defending the country acquired the aſcendency. Since that time they have no longer, as formerly, the entire management of public affairs, but they continue to poſſeſs a conſiderable ſhare of influence and authority.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion. The laws againſt its profeſſors are dreadfully ſevere, but, as is uſual in ſuch caſes, they defeat themſelves, being ſeldom put in execution. Some of theſe laws have been lately repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of every liberal-minded man, though a vehement outcry was not long after excited againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. This was the pretext of the well-known and fatal riots in London, in 1780, excited by that extraordinary fanatic, lord George Gordon. In the preſent age of reaſon and philoſophy, ſuch ſtatutes cannot long reſiſt the general alteration of public opinion.

As England has been remarkable for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has been famous for its *freethinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *deiſts*, or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe, that this claſs of men is more numerous in ſome foreign countries than in England.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon predominates, and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively it enjoys moſt of the advantages, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic and manly, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more harmonious than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, ſubject to provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little difference in their pronunciation. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding Engliſhmen who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the muſes. Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there ſince his time been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume. The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be exceeded in the world, and which were reſpected amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons, who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood-royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to ſir Iſaac Newton. Among the curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford, about the year 1294. Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome royal and noble Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning, and to his work I muſt refer. Since the reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature, and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge, that his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, encouraged theſe foreigners, and ſhowed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning; but this, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England during the bigoted reign of queen

Mary. Elizabeth was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments as ſecondary to their civil. Though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spenſer's muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed till death in obſcurity. She taſted the beauties of the divine Shakeſpeare, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite, the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend, the earl of Southampton, both liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued till the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had an effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden, and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are ſtill ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon, Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collections which he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and, by his immenſe acquiſitions of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, he may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little reliſh for poetry; but he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, Ben Johnſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to the preſent time.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they purſued their ſtudies, to the benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a number of other great men, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which natural knowledge was carried, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was not diſregarded ſo much as has been apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his own court in ſeveral of the polite arts, is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Dryden, Wycherly, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed

more dignity, a better ſtyle, and truer energy, than it had ever known before, and England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in this reign. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under Charles, boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet ſir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity in architecture than had before prevailed. Nor was ſir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect. His knowledge was very extenſive, and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature, by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt the religion of the monarch.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. but he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed entirely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

Every reader is acquainted with the improvements, which philoſophy and all the polite arts received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which made her court not much inferior to that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men who had ſhone in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprang up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the Engliſh were as illuſtrious in literature as triumphant in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning.

The miniſters of George I. were patrons of ſcience, and ſome of them were eminent literary characters. George II. was very far indeed from being a Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men whom it produced. After the year 1745, when Pelham was conſidered as firſt miniſter, men of genius began to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted; ſome very able artiſts have ariſen; and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture, have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind, among the public in general. Yet the fine arts (except muſic, the encouragement of which becomes daily more extravagant) have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patronized; though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved their genius not inferior to that of any other nation.

Neither pulpit nor bar-eloquence has been ſufficiently ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, for the many religious ſects in England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſon than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has, however, prevailed even among ſome of the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language with which they are adorned. The reader is not to imagine, we are inſinuating that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution: few clergy in the world can exceed them in purity and perſpicuity of language, though, if they ſtudied more than they do, the power of expreſſion, they would preach with more effect. If the reſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, is attended with amazing

effects, what muſt not be the conſequence, if they were exerted and ſupported with ſpirit and learning?

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt that the pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech: and a pleading in the Ciceronian manner, would produce a ridiculous effect in Weſtminſter-hall.

Parliamentary ſpeaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, few nations in the world can produce more examples of true eloquence than the Engliſh Senate; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe.

Universities.] The univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe. Their buildings, the endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. Each univerſity ſends two members to parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency, Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity: it is ſaid to have had this title before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this prince was only a reſtorer of learning there. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and ſcholars, maintained at preſent by the revenuus of this univerſity, is about 1000, and the number of ſuch ſcholars as live at their own charge is uſually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 perſons, beſides a great number of inferior officers and ſervants belonging to the ſeveral colleges and halls. Beſides the libraries belonging to the different colleges at Oxford, there are two public libraries, the one principally founded by ſir Thomas Bodley, and the other by a legacy from dr. Radcliffe.

The whole number of fellows in the univerſity of Cambridge is four hundred, and ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix ſcholars, with about two hundred and thirty-ſix officers and ſervants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. Theſe, however, are not all the ſtudents of the univerſity; there are alſo two ſorts of ſtudents, called penſioners, the greater and the leſs; the greater penſioners are ſons of the nobility and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, becauſe, though they are ſcholars, they dine with the fellows; the leſſer penſioners dine with the ſcholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expenſe. There is alſo a conſiderable number of poor ſcholars, called ſizars, who wait upon the fellows and ſcholars and the penſioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of penſioners and ſizars cannot be aſcertained, as it is in a ſtate of perpetual fluctuation.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is an elegant edifice, executed in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a magnificent ſtructure, and in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker. Every human inſtitution contains within itſelf the ſeeds of decay. The great wealth which has been

beſtowed for the moſt honourable purpoſes on the univerſities of England, has ultimately proved the cauſe of their decline. For as ſeminaries of education, they with difficulty ſupport their credit againſt their leſs opulent, but more active rivals on the north of Tweed. Dr. Adam Smith, in his Inquiry, remarks, that, "in Oxford, the greateſt part of the profeſſors have long ſince renounced even the pretence of teaching." Mr. Gray the celebrated poet who reſided during a great part of his life at Cambridge, mentions, in his letters, that univerſity and its members in terms too diſreſpectful for admiſſion into this work, and he himſelf accepted a profeſſorſhip of hiſtory there, with a ſalary of 400l. a year, without condeſcending to give a ſingle lecture. Mr. Viceſimus Knox has publiſhed a variety of animadverſions on the ſame ſubject; and this attack has, as uſual, produced a reply. But the tone of defence tacitly admits that abuſes have long exiſted in the adminiſtration of both univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, or Anglo-Normanic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of perſons of both ſexes, eminent in peace or war; ſome of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets found within them.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the iſles.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways, give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Albans, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great military road, called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. Many veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one, particularly, very little defaced, near Dorcheſter, in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortfications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe, they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and teſſelated pavements which have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a later date; it is even difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, and trinkets, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of

the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts Wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to inſpire the Scots and Picts with caution, than to give any real ſecurity to the Roman poſſeſſions. In ſome places, the wall, the ditch, and the road, are plainly diſcernible. Many learned publications reſpecting Britiſh antiquities have made their appearance of late years, and among others, we preſume to recommend thoſe of mr. Whitaker, mr. Strutt, and a number of curious tracts in the Archæologia.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of eccleſiaſtical edifices and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhown the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Camden and later writers; but if it be not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter ſerved as the burying place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of the Saxons preſent themſelves in different parts of the kingdom, though they are often not to be diſtinguiſhed from the Normanic; and the Britiſh muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England are hardly diſtinguiſhable from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are ſquare.

England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments. York-minſter and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. The excavation under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in time of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that this was the room in which the barons of England met during their wars with king John. The rock is ſoft, but it is difficult to aſcertain where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates.

The natural curioſities of England are various. The medicinal waters and ſprings have been divided into thoſe for bathing, and thoſe for drinking. The chief of the former lie in Somerſetſhire and Derbyſhire; and the Bath and Buxton waters are famous, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge, in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. There are alſo many remarkable ſprings, whereof ſome are impregnated with ſalt, as that of Droitwich in Worceſterſhire; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that of Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire, and a dropping well in the Weſt-riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. At Ancliff, near Wigan, in Lancaſhire, was the famous burning well; the water was cold, neither had it any ſmell; yet ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſued out with the ſtream, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water was covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſted ſeveral hours, and emitted ſo fierce a heat, that meat might have been boiled over it.

This extraordinary heat proceeded from a vein of coals, which has been dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Elden Hole is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew eight hundred and eighty-four yards of line after it, whereof the lowest eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Pooles Hole, near Buxton, for several paces is very low, but soon opens into a lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension: a current of water, which runs along in the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Castleton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who subsist by rope-making, and by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and terminates, at the distance of half a mile from the mouth, in a subterranean lake. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various-coloured stones.

In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

London* appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. London was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks by Constantine the great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London has an intimate connexion with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, and from which they are supplied with others in return. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed: there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen exhibit a more elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the Thames, the banks of which, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are almost one continued magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of merchant-ships, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards lower down the river, for the building of men of war. This city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages.

* London is situated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

The irregular form of this metropolis makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. According to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings is thirty-five miles, two furlongs, and thirty-nine rods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the magnitude of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be above a million, and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion. Of theſe, beſide St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, there are one hundred and two pariſh churches, and ſixty-nine chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; twenty-one French proteſtant chapels; eleven chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. twenty-ſix independent meetings; thirty-four preſbyterian meetings; twenty baptiſt meetings; nineteen Roman catholic chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and three Jewiſh ſynagogues. So that there are three hundred and ſeven places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the twenty-one out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city one hundred alms-houſes, about twenty hoſpitals and infirmaries, three colleges, ten public priſons, fifteen fleſh-markets, one market for live cattle, two markets more particularly for herbs, and twenty-three other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. fifteen inns of court, twenty-ſeven public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple. &c. three bridges, forty-nine halls for companies, eight public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and one hundred and thirty-one charity-ſchools, which provide education for five thouſand and thirty-four poor children; two hundred and ſeven inns, four hundred and forty-ſeven taverns, five hundred and fifty-one coffee houſes, five thouſand nine hundred and ſeventy-five ale-houſes; one thouſand hackney coaches; four hundred ditto chairs; ſeven thouſand ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and one hundred and fifty thouſand dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, above one million of inhabitants.

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163. The paſſage for carriages is thirty-one feet broad, and ſeven feet on each ſide for foot-paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames where it is nine hundred and fifteen feet broad, and has nineteen arches of about twenty feet wide each; but the central one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is a complete and elegant ſtructure. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where the Thames is one thouſand two hundred and twenty-three feet broad. On each ſide is a balluſtrade of ſtone with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is forty-four feet, having on each ſide a foot-way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of fourteen piers, and thirteen large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, the central one being ſeventy-ſix feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the thirteen great ones, are each fifty-two feet. It was begun in 1738, and finiſhed in 1750, at the expenſe of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge is not inferior to that of Weſtminſter in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expenſe of 152,840l. which has been diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious proteſtant church in the world. The length within is five hundred feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs on the top of the cupola, is three hundred and forty. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after

the model of St. Peter's at Rome. St. Paul's church is the principal work of ſir Chriſtopher Wren, who finiſhed the building in thirty-ſeven years. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expenſe of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at near a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte. It is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings, and ſeveral of the nobility; and there are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, as philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year out of the coal-duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

Weſtminſter-hall is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported by pillars, it being two hundred and twenty feet long, and ſeventy broad. In it are held the courts of chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer.

This great city is ſupplied with abundance of freſh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of ſervice to every family, but, by means of fire-plugs, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh-officers, the city is guarded from the ſpreading of fire.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage: it has given riſe to ſeveral companies, who inſure houſes and goods from fire; the premium is ſmall; and the recovery, in caſe of loſs, eaſy and certain. Each of theſe offices keeps a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance; and are extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has inſured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, which confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, expoſed the city to frequent peſtilential devaſtations. The fire, which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city, more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, aroſe on the ruins of the old.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the banks of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient.

It cannot be expected that we ſhould here enter into a detail of all the cities of England. We ſhall touch only on a few of the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in England for wealth and population. Liverpool, in trade and ſhipping, rivals or ſurpaſſes it. Briſtol ſtands upon the north and ſouth ſides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a ſtone bridge. It contains ninety-five thouſand inhabitants.

York is a city of very great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe. It has ſeventeen pariſh churches, and a cathedral, which is one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in Europe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time incloſe it, were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of its inhabitants. Its trade conſiſts in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods. Ships come up to the city by means of ſluices from the river Ex.

Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is clean

and well built, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure, and there are alſo five pariſh churches, but the trade of the city is not ſo conſiderable as formerly.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the ſea, near this city. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches.

Warwick appears to have been a town of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free ſtone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, the ſtreets ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the place.

Coventry is large and populous, has a handſome town-houſe, and twelve gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market place, with a croſs in the middle, ſixty feet high, adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England, as large as the life.

Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. In ſome ſeaſons there have been at Bath eight thouſand perſons beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings are elegant, and in particular, Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus and Creſcent.

No other nation in the world has ſuch dock yards, and all conveniencies for the conſtruction and repairs of a navy, as Portſmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. Britain is a very proper country for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation it produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. Of theſe the woollen is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, excel any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, are alſo very great articles; and Engliſh clocks and watches are in great eſteem.

Of the Britiſh commerce, that branch which they enjoyed excluſively, viz. the trade with their North American colonies, was long regarded as the moſt advantageous. It was imagined that the independence of America would prove extremely deſtructive to the trade and manufactures of Britain. But the event has proved the fallacy of ſuch political calculations. The united ſtates, notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of manufactures among themſelves, afford a greater ſupport to the Britiſh trade, than they did when dependent colonies. This ſtate of affairs is not likely to be much altered, unleſs perhaps by two circumſtances; one is, ſhould any hoſtile meaſure be adopted by the Britiſh court, which might induce retaliation and ſtrong prohibitions on our part. The other, which is a more probable caſe, is, that if the French ſucceed in the eſtabliſhment of a free government, arts and manufactures will no longer languiſh, as they have done, under the fetters of deſpotiſm; and, from the cheapneſs of living in that country, they will be able to underſell the Britiſh in many foreign markets, and particularly in ours.

The chief commodities exported to the united ſtates, are wrought iron, ſteel, copper, pewter, lead, and braſs, cordage, hemp, ſail-cloth, ſhip-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hoſiery, haberdaſhery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, Colcheſter bays, long ells, ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, Manchеſter goods, Britiſh, foreign, and Iriſh linens, earthen wares, grind-ſtones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, ſaddlery, cabinet wares, ſeeds, cheeſe, ſtrong beer, ſmoking pipes, ſnuffs, wines, ſpirits, and drugs; Eaſt India goods, books, paper, and leather.

The commodities exported from America to Britain, are tobacco, rice, flour, biſcuit, wheat, beans, peaſe, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; ſalt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, veniſon, tongues, butter, and cheeſe; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fiſh, and fiſh oil; furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horſes, and live ſtock; timber, planks, maſts, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſhips built for ſale; flax, flax-ſeed, and cotton; indigo, pot-aſh, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; beſides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and ſoils of different provinces. The following is a ſtate of the trade between Britain and the colonies, as it exiſted before the differences broke out between them, marking at the ſame time the commercial ſtrength and ſhipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Britain.	Exports from the colonies.
Hudſon's bay — —	4	130	£. 16,000	£. 29,340
Labrador, American veſſels 120				49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats) —	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada — — —	34	408	105,000	105,000
Nova Scotia — —	6	72	26,500	38,000
Maſſachuſett's Bay —	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and New Hampſhire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York — —	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pennſylvania — —	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland —	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina — —	34	408	18,000	68,450
South Carolina — —	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia —— ——	24	240	49,000	74,200
Eaſt Florida —— ——	2	24	7,000	
Weſt ditto —— ——	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,206

The principal iſlands belonging to the Britiſh in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent's, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas or Summer Iſlands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean.

Their trade with their Weſt India iſlands conſiſts chiefly in ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel, planks, drugs, and preſerves; for theſe the exports from England are oſnaburgs, linen of all ſorts, with broad cloth and kerſies, for the planters, their overſeers and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſehold ſervants; hats; red caps for their ſlaves; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and millinery ware, perukes, laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and almoſt every article raiſed or manufactured in Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, beſide their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, and the ambition, avarice, and

frauds of their ſervants and officers, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as render them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen by the proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and an half ſterling. The expenſes of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe were defrayed, the company not only cleared a vaſt ſum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expenſes of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial, and not commercial. This republic, therefore, cannot be ſaid to be independent; and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years paſt, the company's ſervants have enriched themſelves more than the public. Mr. Fox lately remarked in the houſe of commons, that the company was indebted to the Britiſh government in no leſs than ſixteen millions ſterling.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufactures, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Its imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw ſilks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain, or China ware, and ſaltpetre for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries as well as for home demands. We ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to other countries, according to the lateſt and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England ſends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineal, and log-wood. She imports from thence raw ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates; dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury.

To Spain England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron, and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for the American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

The Britiſh trade to Portugal was formerly extenſive and advantageous. But of late years, the Portugueſe miniſtry have conſulted the intereſts of their own country, in preference to thoſe of England. Hence the Britiſh trade to that kingdom has declined. They have erected two Braſil companies, the one for Marenham and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco. Theſe are conſidered as highly beneficial to Portugal, though, by a neceſſary conſequence, the monopoly poſſeſſed by Engliſh merchants has declined in an equal proportion. Of theſe acts of common ſenſe and common juſtice, on the part of Portugal, the political writers of England very bitterly complain, as if a nation were not entitled to make uſe of its natural advantages. Before theſe alterations took place, England ſent to Portugal almoſt the ſame kinds of merchandize as to Spain, and ſhe received in return, vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France England formerly ſent tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and ſometimes corn; and ſhe brought home wines, brandies, brocades, linen, cambrics,

lace, velvets, and many other goods. That connexion is at preſent (June 1793) ſuſpended by an act paſſed ſince the commencement of the preſent war.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars and tobacco, and receives in return laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of convenience or luxury. To Germany ſhe ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandize; and brings thence linen, thread, goat ſkins, tinned plates, wines, and many other commodities. We have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately diminiſhed by the great importations from North America, of hemp, flax, pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of Engliſh woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandize, ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train oil, toys, and many other articles.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlement at Senegal, opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and above all for gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to them by the late treaty of peace. At preſent England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea, ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead, ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire arms, gunpowder, and glaſs-manufactures. And beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, this trade lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to between thirty and forty thouſand annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea grains and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin, and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee, ſaltpetre, and many other drugs.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſes of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.; it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of the foreign traffic of England are carried on in the port of London.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ two thouſand maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs oc-

cupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges, Exeter for ſerges and long ells, and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camelots, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for one half of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond. Manchester, likewiſe, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. We might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity, but the detail would become too prolix. We muſt not, however, diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable. Paper, which, till very lately, was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom.

We ſhall cloſe this article with a ſhort ſpecimen of the encouragement which commerce may often expect to find at an Engliſh cuſtom-houſe.

"So little indulgence," ſays dr. Wendeborn, "is to be met with, even in trifles, that if the whole duty of a parcel amounts but to a penny, which would be readily paid ſix times over, it is to be entered in the moſt expenſive manner. I remember that ſome years ago, two little German pamphlets, of the ſize of an Engliſh magazine, in a blue cover, were ſent to me from Hamburgh, and a ſhip-broker, on ſeeing them directed to me, drew up, without my knowing it, a petition that they might be delivered, which he preſented at the cuſtom-houſe, where they, however, were ordered to be entered. The broker told me, that the duty, according to the weight of the pamphlets, would hardly amount to a halfpenny, and the cuſtom-houſe fees to about five ſhillings. As the original value of both pamphlets was only fifteen pence, I took the advice of prudence and economy, and ſacrificed fifteen pence to ſave five ſhillings, and a great deal of trouble beſides, by leaving my pamphlets in the hands of the cuſtom-houſe officers*." A thouſand examples of this kind happen daily, and the multiplication of ſuch abuſes in every department of the revenue does not inſpire us with any exalted opinion of the wiſdom or juſtice of the legiſlature itſelf.

The declaration of war againſt the republic of France has in its outſet been attended with the moſt terrible havoc to the commerce and manufactures of the Britiſh kingdoms. In leſs than three months, bankruptcies have taken place to the extent of about ſixteen millions ſterling. Some hundred thouſands of perſons have

* Wendeborn's View of England, vol. I. article, Commerce.

been deprived of employment, and desolation and beggary stalk hand in hand over the ruins of civilized life.

A short view of the STOCKS *or* PUBLIC FUNDS *in England; with an historical account of the East India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies.*

These subjects are intimately connected; and all of them important in the political description of England. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard to such a degree, as to supply its place, and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the place of specie, but the credit of that office or company which delivers it; and this credit consists in the facility afforded by the bank for converting the paper into specie. The notes of the bank of England are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no interest), is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance. A bank note for a very large sum may be sent by the post, and, to prevent theft, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called bank post-bills, may be had by application at the bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent fraud, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the bank if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negociated by strangers, as common bank-notes are: and whoever considers the hazard, the expense, and trouble, in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also regard this as a very important advantage. Besides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the bank will, on oath being made of such an accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars: 1. They are always of the same value; 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and 3. They bear no interest; while *stocks* are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishment of a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money advanced. But this term has been extended farther, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid. The security both of the government and the public companies, is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, because stock is negociable, and may always be readily transferred, as the interest is always punctually paid when due.

Every fund being raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it follows, that when the fund is completed, no more stock can be bought; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and on the con-

trary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations were neceſſary to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice, called *ſtock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated ſtock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time, they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts, are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes, that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price which the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price that it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this caſe is called the bull, and the ſeller the bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the ſtock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government, whenever any new loan is to be made. Theſe, indeed, are not fictitious, but real buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, uſing the former ſet of men as their inſtruments, and by other like practices, they are able to raiſe or lower the ſtocks at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really or only in imagination affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent per ann. muſt be more valuable than an annuity, with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum; and conſequently the ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than the annuity. But it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. will not ſell ſo high as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not regarded as equal to that of government; and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt India, the bank, and the South Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks that each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt India company as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.] Of the above the Eaſt India company is the principal. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has ſince undergone great alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891l. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares

were doubled ; and, conſequently, each became of 100l. value, and the capital, 739,782l.—to which capital, 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, being added, the whole ſtock amounts to 1,703,421l. The partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes which the company ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the public to ſupport it ; ſo that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth ; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected, under the authority of parliament.

This propoſal proved a matter of difficulty ; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed ; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public, at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great intereſt both in the parliament and nation ; and the two were united, in the year 1702. In 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent, by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without any additional intereſt ; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges ; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "the united company of merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." A farther ſum being lent by the company in 1730, their privileges were extended for thirty-three years, and the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade ; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, is eligible as a manager, and has a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds are the qualification for a director : the directors are twenty-four in number, (including the chairman and deputy-chairman) who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings of the court of directors are to be held at leaſt once a week ; but are commonly held oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 ſquare miles, and containing, as has been reported, 30,000,000 of people, have produced a proportionable increaſe of trade* : and this, joined to the diſſenſions among its managers, both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From a report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the laſt mentioned period it appeared, that, beſides the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of

* According to liſts laid before the houſe of commons, the company employed 110 ſhips, and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from	—	70 Ships and	7130 men,
		6 Packets —	320
In the country trade to and from China —	—	34 Grabs —	720

the East India company by an act passed 1773, intitled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the East India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years: six members annually; but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no person should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed his stock twelve months. That the mayor's court at Calcutta should in future be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisitions. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one should be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges and that these judges should be appointed by the crown. That a superiority should be given to the presidency of Bengal over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed at 8000l. to the chief justice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the first at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immense power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto resulted to the company: on the contrary, the new established court of justice has paid so little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the usages of that country, as to occasion the most alarming discontents among the natives, and great dissatisfaction even among the company's own servants.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the insolvent state of the company at that time. The intention of the bill was, to vest the whole powers of the East India company in *seven directors*, whose names were specified by the secretary of state, and adopted by the house of commons. They were to hold their offices during four years, removable, like the twelve judges, by an address of either house of parliament, and not by any other power: and *nine gentlemen*, proposed and adopted in the same manner, were to assist them in managing the commercial affairs of the company. It is unnecessary to enter into a detail of the contents of this bill, which was rejected in the house of peers through royal influence, the king having written a card, which was handed to the lords of the bedchamber, stating that no lord who voted for the bill should be regarded as his friend.

A new bill passed at the close of the sessions, 1784, by which three innovations were intended. First, the establishing a power of control in England, by which the executive government in India was to be connected with that over the rest of the empire. Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils that have prevailed there. Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those persons, who shall continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the country.

Notwithstanding the regulations of this bill, it has been suspected that they will produce no very material effect, unless vigorous measures be taken to enforce them, and of this there can hardly be a possibility; as the machine is too immense to be properly managed by any minister.

We have been informed by a certain orator in parliament, that *India is the brightest jewel in the British crown*. We shall take the freedom to illustrate this metaphor by a few extracts from an author of the first rank for good sense, eloquence, and authenticity. We refer to the history of Indostan by colonel Alexander Dow, a gentleman of North Britain, who died in the service of the company.

"The civil wars," says he, "to which a violent desire of creating nabobs gave rise, were attended with tragical events. Bengal was depopulated by every species

of public diſtreſs. In the ſpace of ſix years, half the great cities of an opulent kingdom were rendered deſolate; the moſt fertile fields in the world laid waſte; and FIVE MILLIONS of harmleſs people were either expelled or deſtroyed. Want of foreſight became more fatal than innate barbariſm; and men found themſelves wading through blood and ruin, when their only object was ſpoil." Vol. III. p. 70.

"No collector (of revenue) nor even his principal ſervant, travels over any part of his diſtrict, without impoſing upon the village in which he chooſes to reſt, a tax of rice, fowl, kid, fruits, and every other luxury of the table for himſelf and his dependents. He alſo levies fines at pleaſure, for frivolous pretences, and under various and often falſe pretexts. The crime conſiſts in the ability of the perſon to pay the fine; and nothing but exceſs of miſery and poverty is ſafe from the griping hand of avarice." Ibid. p. 99.

"The total ſuſpenſion of all juſtice among the natives of Bengal was another cauſe of national decay. Men who retained ſome property, in ſpite of the violence of the times, inſtead of being protected by Britiſh law, found that they had not even the juſtice of a deſpot to depend upon when they were wronged. The officers of the nabob, *as they were called*, committed every ſpecies of violence, under pretence of the orders of the company. When any perſon complained to the governor and council, he was referred back to thoſe very men of whom he had complained. The heavy crime of having appealed to Britiſh juſtice, was thrown in his face, by oppreſſors who were at once judge and party; and ruin and corporal puniſhment were added to his other wrongs. The ſpirit which aſſerts the natural rights of mankind, was called inſolence, till it was totally broken by oppreſſion; and men were even cautious in venting their complaints in ſecret; fearing that the very walls of their private apartments had ears." Ibid. p. 107.

The ſame author having propoſed a plan for reſtoring the proſperity of Bengal, adds—"Proviſions would fall to a third part of the preſent price; the country would aſſume a new face, and the people wear the aſpect of joy. Immenſe tracts of rich land, which now, with their woods, conceal the ruins of great cities, WOULD AGAIN BE CULTIVATED; and new provinces ariſe out of thoſe marſhy iſlands, near the mouth of the Ganges, which are, at preſent, the wild haunts of the rhinoceros and the tiger." Ibid. p. 126. Theſe iſlands were formerly full of people. The preceding ſpecimens will aſſiſt the reader in forming a moral and political eſtimate as to "the brighteſt jewel in the Britiſh crown."

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000l granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, nor ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, in any goods or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament, paſſed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted that the bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal, and not a real eſtate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the bank, or any bank note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch notes.

By another act, paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were empowered

to augment their capital to 4,402,343l. and they then advanced 400,000l. more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000l. and it was declared lawful for the bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London gazette, and fixed upon the royal exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch member, and to apply it towards payment of the money in queſtion; but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of five per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid: and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter, as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the bank reduced to 1,600,000. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000l. at three per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was indebted to the company, 3,200,000l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800l. due to them in the exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties of licences to ſell ſpiritous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,472l. the intereſt of that ſum at four per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000l. at four per cent. into the exchequer, for exchequer bills iſſued upon the credit of the duties ariſing from the malt and land-tax; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

In order to enable them to circulate the ſaid exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called bank circulation: the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and what ever money they have by them, over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a milllion, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening the ſum employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money, the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent, and enter into a contract to pay the remainder;

or any part thereof, whenever the bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum, till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following ſtatement:

The bank receives from the government, for the advance of a million, — — — — —	£. 30,000
The bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000l and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more —	6,500
The clear gain to the bank, therefore, is — —	23.500

This holds, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

The company of the bank are allowed by government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. They make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and have their intereſt added to the principal*.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

South Sea company.] During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, they received tickets inſtead of money, and were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies, 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them for the purpoſe of carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were likewiſe incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America and for encouraging the fiſhery, &c."

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, of making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what had flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

* The bank company is ſuppoſed to have twelve millions of circulating paper.

Some other ſums were lent to the government, in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that they might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling them to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations, under their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South Sea bubble was projected. The pretence was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhowing the advantages of this deſign. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs was occaſioned, as can ſcarcely be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; ſome of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, that they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,203l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New South Sea annuities; and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption, and attended with the ſame ſums allowed for the charge of management with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South Sea company. That the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſona-

bly divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and the South Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, the king excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt India company, the bank of England, and the South Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the exchequer orders: but the South Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits that they make on the ſums allowed to them for the management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

By what has been ſaid, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the intereſt of Britain depend on the ſupport of the public funds, of which more particulars will be given under the article REVENUES. While the annuities are regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people, foreigners will freely lend their property.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] In all ſtates there is a ſupreme power to which the right of legiſlation belongs, and which, by the conſtitution of the Britiſh kingdoms, is veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is veſted in a ſingle perſon, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon entitled to it is immediately entruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of thoſe kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

After the revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates or repreſentative body of the nation, declared, that the miſconduct of James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception of, or preference to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the

throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and her heirs, being proteſtants; and from her the heirs of the crown now deſcend.

The king of Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of his power, poſſeſſes a very great degree of authority. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which declares it a capital crime to conſpire againſt his life. Neither can he, in himſelf, be regarded as guilty of any crime; for by a very adulatory fiction of the Engliſh law, it has been determined, that he can do no wrong. His miniſters alone are reſponſible for the infringements that may be committed on the laws or conſtitution of the country, by themſelves or him: however, he is very often a mere cypher, in the hands of an able and enterpriſing ſtateſman. Without the conſent of both houſes of parliament, the king cannot make any new laws, nor impoſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war, or peace, make treaties of alliance or commerce, levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his dominions, the attack of foreign enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of domeſtic inſurrections. He grants commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, and revokes them at pleaſure. He diſpoſes of all magazines, caſtles, &c. and, what is perhaps the moſt important of all his prerogatives, he has not only the ſole authority for citing parliament to aſſemble, but he appoints the time and place of their meeting, and can at his will adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve them. This expedient has been often adopted with great ſucceſs, when a parliament has begun to make any vigorous oppoſition to the views of the crown. So that this aſſembly depends, in a very great degree, for their political exiſtence, on the nod of their ſovereign. He can refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it has paſſed through both houſes, which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force, than if it never had been moved; but this prerogative has been ſeldom exerciſed by the kings of England, and never, we believe, ſince the reign of William the third. When the ſpirit of reſiſtance happens to run high, it has been thought ſafer to ſilence the diſcontented party, by a timely adjournment, or, as in 1784, by a diſſolution. Such a ſtep has afforded a miniſter deciſive advantages. When a parliament has become unpopular, their diſſolution is celebrated as a national deliverance; and, in all events, the myrmidons of the cabinet have time to gain the ſtart of their opponents, and to enforce the merit of their paſt ſervices by the ſubſtantial logic of the treaſury. This contention of the oppoſite powers has ſometimes produced ludicrous circumſtances. A houſe of commons, in the reign of Charles the ſecond, hearing that they were on the verge of extinction, bolted their doors, and ſuffered the uſher of the black rod to rap at his leiſure, till they had finiſhed ſome obnoxious reſolutions, which they were employed in framing. The king chooſes his own council, nominates all the great officers of ſtate, of the royal houſehold, and of the church of England. But this is a matter of form rather than of fact; for the caſe has ſometimes been, that he has wanted influence to appoint the loweſt officer about the court. This is always the caſe, when, to borrow the ſtrong language of the preſent miniſter, "a combination has been formed to ſeize the government of the country." In Dodington's dairy, and the anecdotes of the life of lord Chatham, lately publiſhed, an American reader will find much information on this head. To theſe and other publications of the ſame kind, as alſo to the debates in parliament, we muſt refer for additional particulars.

The king is the fountain of what Engliſh lawyers call *honour*; from him all degrees of nobility and knighthood being derived. This privilege has alſo been found a very formidable engine againſt the liberty of parliament. When a miniſter can no longer keep his ſeat in the houſe of commons, and dreads perhaps the vengeance of his ſucceſſors, he is ſometimes removed to the upper houſe, and

though the privileges of an Engliſh peer do not place him beyond the reach of a trial, yet his *exalted* ſtation almoſt always enables him to deſpiſe it. This power is frequently exerciſed not only to ſecure a favourite miniſter from puniſhment, but likewiſe for very oppoſite purpoſes. When mr. Pulteney and mr. Pitt had, by their exceſſive influence with the people, become very dangerous antagoniſts to the meaſures of the crown, they were both ſeduced by peerages into a deſertion of their party; and, as lord Cheſterfield elegantly expreſſes it, "ſhrunk into inſignificance and an earldom." Dodington, in a fit of diſcontent, gave up his office of treaſurer of the navy. George the ſecond refuſed to reſtore him to his ſituation, or indeed to grant him any other favour; but, after a ſervile negociation which laſted during many years, the commoner, as he commanded five or ſix ſeats in the lower houſe of parliament, was dignified and ſilenced with *the title of lord Melcombe.*

When a judge has diſtinguiſhed himſelf by a ſucceſſion of all kinds of ſervices for all kinds of adminiſtrations, it is uſual to reward his aſſiduities by a ſeat in the houſe of peers. When queen Anne had a very important bill to carry in that aſſembly, and found it impracticable to obtain a majority, ſhe, or rather Harley, her miniſter, created twelve peers at a ſingle ſtroke. The preſent adminiſtration has been remarkably prodigal of this ſort of bounty, and the practice is now known in England by the cant phraſe of *making a batch of peers.*

The king has a variety of other prerogatives, which ſeem at leaſt ſingular among a people who boaſt of their freedom as ſuperior to that of the reſt of mankind. When private perſons go to law, he who loſes is often obliged to pay all coſts; but the king, in his lawſuits, though he loſes, never pays any. If a perſon becomes bankrupt, and owes any debt to the crown, that ſum is previouſly taken from the whole of the bankrupt's effects, and what afterwards remains is divided among the creditors. But as they have alſo to pay with their fellow ſubjects, the common ſhare of the public burdens, this tax upon the loſſes of individuals, is, to the laſt degree, partial, unjuſt, and oppreſſive. If the collector of the land-tax in a pariſh in England, ſhould become inſolvent, or prove a knave, the inhabitants of the pariſh muſt pay taxes a ſecond time, to make good the deficiency of what is due to the king. If any perſon has, in point of property, a juſt demand upon the king, he muſt petition him in his court of chancery, where the chancellor will adminiſter right *as a matter of grace, though not upon compulſion.* To add, by way of apology, that ſuch language is only complimentary to the royal dignity, does not offer an adequate atonement to inſulted juſtice. In Germany, queſtions of this kind are ſometimes decided upon a better principle. The late king of Pruſſia once erected a turnpike, and inſtituted a toll on the high road leading to Leipſic. That city commenced a law ſuit againſt him in the court at Wetzlar. The king loſt his ſuit, the turnpike was removed, and the toll dropped.

The crown is at preſent making rapid ſtrides towards an utter extinction of the liberty of the preſs, and the advantages of a trial by jury, in all caſes where the intereſt of government is particularly concerned. On the 8th of April, 1793, Mr. Joſeph Cuthbert, a tailor of Belfaſt, ſtood in the pillory in that town for having delivered to a ſoldier a paper containing ſome remarks on the tendency of a ſtanding army. Two years ago, this performance might have been circulated with ſafety in every regiment in the ſervice. The determination in this queſtion, of the following points, exhibits in a lively view the nature of the preſent political proceedings in the Britiſh kingdoms. Firſt, a traverſer in caſes in which the king is a party, is not entitled to a copy of the indictment. Second, the king cannot be nonſuited by any defect or imperfection in an indictment. Third, the crown can object to jurors *abſolutely;* a traverſer cannot, without ſhowing cauſe. Fourth, the crown has the right to put off the trial without ſhowing cauſe. The traverſer cannot without affidavit of cauſe.—Any one of theſe advantages on the ſide of the

crown would be of infinite conſequence; but when they are taken all together, it is plain, that a trial of this ſort can be nothing but a farce. The government, when it chooſes to be at the requiſite expenſe of character and decency, muſt, upon theſe principles, obtain whatever ſentence it may think proper.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils in ſome ſhape, are of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in Britain, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone ſays, "it is generally agreed that in the main, the conſtitution of parliament, as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the great charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons perſonally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown, by the ſheriff and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages, when neceſſary. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal (who ſit, together with the king, in one houſe), and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput*, *principium*, *et finis*. For upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo, as we have already obſerved, has alone the power of diſſolving them.

The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlature, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers in the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new made ones: and, ſince the union with Scotland, ſixteen peers by election, who repreſent the body of the Scotch nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

The houſe of commons is ſaid to be elected by the people, as their repreſentatives in parliament; but this expreſſion muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of land-eſtates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous villages, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property, have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation, has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The extenſion of the duration of parliaments from three to ſeven years, has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scotch, 45; in all 558; and every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not

particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in what relates to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays ſir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendant and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. But their power, however great, was given them in truſt, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of juſtice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people, not, as in the caſe of the marriage act, the game laws, the dog act, the ſhop tax, the pedlar tax, and a thouſand others, to grind the face of poverty.

Some of the moſt important privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and of their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1. W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeizures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and as ſuch puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted or taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament.*

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon. Each peer has a right, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons for ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from the journals: but this has been thought a violent meaſure.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Britain, empowered to enquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and

* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts, was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons, therefore, relinquiſhed this privilege by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houſes may now be ſued like other debtors.

cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament. With regard to taxes, it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and the right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and be firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves. And ſo reaſonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as by turnpikes, pariſh-rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given; to bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it be of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition, ſetting forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition muſt be preſented by a member, and, when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed, is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and report on it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe, without any petition. In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety. This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker explains to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion, whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and, if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either ſelected by the houſe, in buſineſs of ſmall importance; or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member, and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman), and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have gone through the bill, it is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on parchment. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again explains the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this, it is ſent to the houſe of lords for their concur-

rence. If there paſſes through the forms, as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have paſſed any bill, it is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. No expreſſion can be inſerted, nor the ſlighteſt alteration take place, till the ſpeaker or the chairman puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no;* and, in the houſe of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private: the decrees of this court are only binding on the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſed to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, when he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*. The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs; through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament, or chooſing of members; commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c. The exceſſive delay of deciſion in the court of chancery, has been long proverbial. Dr. Swift introduced Gulliver complaining that he had been almoſt ruined by gaining two cauſes in it.

The king's bench is likewiſe a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Four judges preſide there, the firſt of whom is ſtiled lord chief juſtice of England. This court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices or judges of the king's bench.

The court of common pleas takes cognizance of all pleas debateable, and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the king's bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, or common bench; there are likewiſe three other judges or juſtices of this court.

The court of exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and equity. In the law proceedings, the lord chief baron of the exchequer and three other barons preſide as judges. Beſide theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity,

but is only employed in adminiſtering the oaths to ſheriffs and their officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters reſpecting the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the exchequer the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers; and the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county, whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee ſentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them while they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide, in the firſt inſtance, the elections of knights of the ſhire, of coroners, and of verdurers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes and amerciaments into the exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

He keeps a court, called the county-court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman in it, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

The next officer to the ſheriff is the *juſtice of the peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county; and to them is entruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. They examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty; the juſtices commit the former to jail for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county.

Every perſon who is a candidate for this office muſt poſſeſs a clear landed eſtate of an hundred pounds a year. This is the only qualification which has been poſitively required by the ſtatute, nor does it appear that even the capacity of reading or writing is abſolutely neceſſary. It has indeed been underſtood by the legiſlature of England, that theſe magiſtrates are but ſeldom adequate to the execution of their duty. On this head the curious ſtyle of Blackſtone deſerves to be quoted. "If a *well-meaning* juſtice makes any undeſigned *ſlip* in his *practice*, great lenity and indulgence are ſhown to him in the courts of law; and there are many ſtatutes, made to protect him in the upright diſcharge of his office, which, among other privileges, prohibit ſuch juſtices from being ſued for any *overſights*, without notice before hand; and ſtop all ſuits begun, on tender made of ſufficient amends." In this paſſage the writer plainly preſuppoſes that theſe magiſtrates are ignorant of their buſineſs; and when they have committed an act of deſpotiſm, it would ſeem that the door is not only ſhut, but bolted againſt redreſs. Henry Fielding, who was himſelf

what is termed a *trading* juſtice, has left us ſome entertaining ſketches of this kind of magiſtracy.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of their office is to enquire concerning ſhipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. On the coaſt of ſome of the maritime counties of England, there ſtill continues the barbarous cuſtom of plundering veſſels in this unfortunate ſituation.

Every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in matters civil and criminal; with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all capital offences are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chooſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly ſimilar: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; who, during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England toward France, viz. Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings, and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by the ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high-conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another officer, called the tything-man, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, each free burgh conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of the conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has been of late found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſide theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county, in which the fact is alleged to have been committed, and not unleſs twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28. Edward III. it is enacted that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial. In ſome caſes, the man who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt, is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number*, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the crime is thought to have been committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king, and the priſoners whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence*. By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Upon their integrity and underſtanding the lives of all who are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal.

Juries too frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who have neither knowledge to underſtand their rights and privileges, nor ſpirit to maintain them. But when judiciouſly choſen, they are a moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation where a king can do nothing againſt law, they afford a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the atrocious advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he, let all ways be tried to juſtify him; if that be impoſſible, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject who has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubject may not get too great a cuſtom of laying his hands on the patrician order." When a priſoner is brought to his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be his counſel, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law.

Of PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are eſteemed more merciful to offenders than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in moſt other parts of the world, yet the puniſhment of ſuch as at their trial refuſed to plead guilty, or not guilty, was formerly very cruel. In this caſe, the priſoner was laid upon his back upon the bare floor, naked, and his arms and legs being ſtretched out with cords, and a conſiderable weight of iron laid upon his breaſt, he was allowed only three morſels of barley bread the firſt day; the next day he was allowed nothing but three draughts of foul water that ſhould be neareſt to the priſon door; and, in this ſituation, this was to be alternately his daily diet till he expired. This puniſhment, however, there was ſeldom occaſion to inflict, and the cruel proceſs is now aboliſhed; for by a late act of parliament the priſoner's refuſal to plead is to be conſidered

* The party may challenge thirty-five, in caſe of treaſon.

as a conviction, and he is to ſuffer the ſame puniſhment as if he had been tried, and found guilty. And formerly, in caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtood mute, judgment was given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate was confiſcated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed upon ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility. But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe*.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. The crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty of this crime or of high-treaſon, were ſentenced to be burnt alive; but this brutal law has been very lately repealed, and they are now hanged without being burnt.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only murderers‖ are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river Thames, &c. for a certain number of years; lately ſome have been ſent to Africa and Nova Scotia; and it has been conjectured that the new ſettlement at Botany-bay will be productive of ſalutary conſequences. However, it has been attended with an enormous expenditure of public money. By an imperfect ſtate of accounts laid before the Britiſh houſe of commons, it appeared, that in the firſt three years, from the beginning of this project, the colony had coſt about ſix hundred thouſand pounds; two thouſand criminals had been tranſported during that time, ſo that upon an average, they had coſt government about three hundred pounds each, or an hundred pounds per annum. We are enabled to ſtate theſe facts with preciſion, as we have ſeen a printed copy of theſe accounts which was diſtributed among the members of the houſe. Vaſt numbers of theſe miſerable paſſengers periſhed in the courſe of the voyage, and proſecutions were commenced againſt the maſters of ſome of the veſſels for murder; but we have not yet learned the ſequel of the tranſaction.

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the beheading.

‖ By a late act, murderers are to be executed within a day after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday; ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two, who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case the criminal is allowed the benefit of clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless he was doing an unlawful act; which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shoplifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, and keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory or imprisonment.

Petty-larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve pence, is punished by whipping.

Libelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing in the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking, in Westminster-hall, while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Extra-parochial tithes. 3. The first fruits and tenths of benefices. At present, such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that those branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present lie in a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonimous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies; and are granted by the commons of Britain, in parliament assembled: who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so voted; and in this committee, every member may propose such a scheme of taxation as he thinks fit. The resolutions of this committee when approved by a vote of the house, are in general deemed final and conclusive; for, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the house of commons.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition, on a

great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office*, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp-duty on newſpapers, almanacs, paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions, with a variety of new taxes impoſed ſince the end of the war with America. The neat annual produce of theſe taxes, together with the malt and land tax, amounts at preſent to about ſeventeen millions ſterling; beſides the expenſe of collection, which is not, perhaps, leſs than another million and a half. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt be firſt premiſed, that, after the revolution, the new connexions of England with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, in maintaining long wars, as a principal, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes. Hence the national expenſes increaſed to an unuſual degree: inſomuch that it was not thought adviſable to raiſe all the expenſes of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was, therefore, the policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, at an enormous rate; and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferrable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. hardly deſerve the name; and the example then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince, that the capital of the funded debt, at midſummer 1775, was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it, amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The American war commenced at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the ſinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for ſupplies, have conſiderably increaſed this burden†.

The following was the ſtate of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commiſſioners of public accounts:

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,363,254	15	4¾	Funded debt			
			Intereſt thereon, - - -	7,951,930	1	0
18,856,541	11	4½	Unfunded 1ſt of October 1783: fifteen millions of this bear intereſt now.			
			Intereſt thereon, - - -	612,742	0	0
230,219,796	6	9¼				

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increaſed from 5000l. to 198,226l. but it ſhould be obſerved, that the groſs amount of both inland and foreign offices was in the latter year 295,492l. In 1764, the groſs amount of the revenues of the poſt-office for that year was 432,048l. which, by the act paſſed in the ſeſſions of 1734, increaſing the duty according to the diſtance, and abridging the franking, muſt be conſiderably augmented.

† In the courſe of the war againſt America, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. were added to the 3 per cents. and 26,750,000l. to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions!

	£.	s.	d.
Charges at the bank for managing the buſineſs - - - -	134,291	13	1
Fees at the auditor's office of impreſt	19,874	2	8
Some other fees of office	696	12	4
	8,719,534	9	1
Since this report, the funded debt hath increaſed to -	232,280,549	0	0
The unfunded debt, meaning all expenſes, deficiencies, arrears, and outſtanding debts, for paying the principal or intereſt of which no proviſion was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned - -	38,000,000	0	0
The amount of exchequer bills - - -	9,418,564	0	0
	279,698,913	0	0
Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation, by its debts, funded and unfunded, appears to be about	9,500,000	0	0
Peace eſtabliſhment, reckoned at the average annual expenſe for eleven years preceding the war, —	3,950,000	0	0
Income of the civil liſt — — —	900,000	0	0
Whole expenditure, — — —	14,350,000	0	0

The iſſues of the ſeveral taxes were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting them together: ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for ſome years about 2,600,000l. per annum; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition, which for ſome years hath amounted to rather more than a million per annum; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million per annum. The ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes, therefore, of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 George I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to ſink or reduce the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum; for, as the intereſt on the national debt has been

at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or to be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes it can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating its incumbrances.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund hath increaſed; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and ſubſequent adminiſtrations have broken in upon it, thus converting an excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for the worſt purpoſes.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund hath produced from two to three millions; and, if 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733 to the preſent time, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid off, and the nation much relieved. Such regulations were made in 1790 for reducing the national debt, and for collecting the public taxes, as afforded a pleaſing proſpect to Britain*. But the Nootka Sound armament, and ſtill more the war with France that is now raging, has annihilated every viſion of this nature.

His preſent majeſty, ſoon after his acceſſion, accepted the ſum of 800,000l. per annum, for the ſupport of his civil liſt; and that alſo charged with three life annuities, to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and the princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000l. The aggregate fund is now charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, beſides annual payments to the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, and the repreſentatives of Arthur Onſlow, eſq. and the earl of Chatham. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the intereſt of the national debt, and the ſums produced from the ſinking fund, beſide the uncertain ſums ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately impoſed, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charge of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of that country, amount to upwards of ſeventeen millions ſterling.

The expenſes defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe of the royal houſehold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's privy purſe, ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament, to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large ſums have alſo been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the preſent reign; and the conſiderable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewiſe been made to his annual income. When the bill for ſuppreſſing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which ſavings were to be made to the amount of 72,368l. per annum, it appeared, that the arrears due

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhows, that, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. ſtock, and in forty years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort, ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for ſaving the kingdom.—The increaſe of taxes which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and, at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit."

on the civil liſt at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithſtanding that ſo liberal an allowance had been recently made, and that the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; for the payment of this other debt, proviſion was made by the bill. Large arrears are alſo ſince contracted.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now ſtanding in the ſame place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have increaſed.

No part of the preſent ſyſtem of government in Britain, is regarded with leſs veneration by modern reformers, than the civil liſt. The eſtabliſhment of a prince of Wales has never coſt leſs than fifty thouſand pounds a year, which is an additional burden on the nation, over and above the nine hundred thouſand pounds to his father. The preſent heir to the crown has, in the courſe of about twelve or fifteen years, expended not leſs than as many hundred thouſand pounds, and he is yet ſuppoſed to be at leaſt half a million in debt. His ſettled income is now ſixty thouſand pounds a year, that of his brother, the duke of York, thirty ſeven thouſand, and of his ſecond brother, the duke of Clarence, twelve thouſand, beſides the appointments of the two laſt in the land and ſea ſervice. Yet ſome years ago, theſe young men were under the neceſſity of mortgaging a part of their revenues, for an immediate advance of caſh, to ſome dutch Jews. The late duke of Cumberland, the *humane* victor of Culloden, was rewarded for his ſervices with an addition of twenty-five thouſand pounds a year to his former revenue, paid out of the civil liſt, which was fifteen thouſand pounds. Very large ſums have been likewiſe beſtowed in paying portions for the marriage of the daughters of the royal family, and for ſo many other grants, upon innumerable pretences, that the eſtabliſhment has not altogether coſt leſs than twelve hundred thouſand pounds, or a million and an half, per annum, upon an average, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover. Over and above all theſe largeſſes, we are informed, by Dodington's Diary, that George the ſecond had*, previous to the year 1755, abſtracted fifteen millions ſterling from the public money. The writer, in a converſation with the princeſs dowager of Wales, affirms, that himſelf and the other members of the privy council could find full evidence of it; and that if the ſecret ſhould eſcape, it might be of the moſt dangerous conſequences to the proteſtant ſucceſſion. Doddington ſubjoins, that none of them could tell what had become of any part of this immenſe ſum. It was farther diſcovered, during the lunacy of his preſent majeſty, that he alſo is poſſeſſed of many unknown millions. The nation had been repeatedly ſolicited to pay his debts, and it had been of courſe underſtood, that he himſelf was unable to pay them. The part of the civil liſt which is expended in diſcharging the ſalaries of judges, miniſters and foreign ambaſſadors, does not amount to perhaps a tenth part of the whole. The reader will find this ſubject diſcuſſed with an able though ſparing hand, in the ſecond volume of ſir John Sinclair's hiſtory of the Britiſh revenue.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF BRITAIN. Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the

* Dodington's Diary, Dublin edition, page 195.

preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which, is, to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every country, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which the laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the country againſt foreign or domeſtic violence.

But as the mode of keeping ſtanding armies has prevailed over all Europe for a conſiderable time, it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by the legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces* of thoſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there were in the pay of Britain, during the American war, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia. To regulate this body of troops, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer or ſoldier ſhall excite, or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it, ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer; or ſhall deſert, or liſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer, or diſobey his lawful command; ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

Officers and ſoldiers that have been in the king's ſervice are, by ſeveral ſtatutes, at liberty to uſe any trade or occupation which they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two univerſities), notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter to the contrary; and ſoldiers, in actual military ſervice, may make verbal wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expenſes, which the law requires in other caſes.

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former. So inferior was England formerly in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of the marine is by many aſcribed to the navigation act framed in 1650, which prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with the Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods

* The land forces conſiſt of
2 troops of horſe-guards, raiſed in 1660.—2 troops of horſe-grenadier-guards, raiſed in 1693 and 1702.—1 royal regiment of horſe-guards, ditto, 1661.—4 Regiments of horſe-guards, ditto, 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of dragoon-guards, ditto, 1685.—18 Regiments of dragoons, including light horſe, raiſed between 1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards, raiſed in 1660.—[illegible] Regiments of foot, the firſt, or Royal Scots, raiſed in 1633, the others between 1661 and 1762.—20 independent companies of invalids.—4 Battalions of royal artillery, a royal regiment of artillery in Ireland, and a corps of engineers: together with 4 diviſions of marine forces.—1 Regiment of light dragoons, and 5 Battalions of foot in Eaſt India. Several regiments raiſed for the ſervice of the crown, from the commencement of the American war, were afterwards diſbanded; but large levies are now raiſing for the French war.

were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this additional clauſe, that the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, ſhould alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen in time of peace, hath uſually amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war they have formerly amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the war with the united ſtates, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament, for the ſervice of the year 1784, was for 26,000 ſeamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of this naval force, is, next to the king, veſted in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding the favourable ſituation of England for a maritime power, it was not until the prodigious armament ſent to ſubdue that country, by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its natural ſtrength.

Many laws have been made for the ſupply of the Britiſh navy with ſeamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them during and after their ſervice.

1. For their ſupply. The power of impreſſing men for the ſea-ſervice, by the king's commiſſion, has been matter of much diſpute, and ſubmitted to with great reluctance; though it hath been ſhown by ſir Michael Foſter, that the practice of impreſſing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpoſe, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular ſeries of precedents to the preſent time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty ariſes from hence, that no ſtatute, or act of parliament, has expreſsly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very ſtrongly imply it. It has alſo been ſuppoſed, that a practice ſo hoſtile to the liberty of the ſubject, and to the common principles of juſtice and humanity, could not be ſolidly ſupported without ſome clear, poſitive, and unequivocal law.

Beſides this method of impreſſing, the principal trading cities, and ſometimes the government, offer bounty-money to the mariners who enter voluntarily into ſervice: and every foreign ſeaman, who during a war, ſhall ſerve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipſo facto*.

But as impreſſing is a groſs violation of the natural rights of mankind, ſo has the bounty money, which ſeldom exceeds 40s. proved ineffectual. The wages of ſeamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is uſually from 50s. to 4l. per month; on board of the royal navy they only receive 22s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize-money, which, if divided in an equitable manner, would produce the happieſt effects. There would then be leſs occaſion for bounty-money or preſſing; fleets would be ſpeedily manned, and regularly ſupplied with experienced and able ſeamen. It has been matter of ſurpriſe that no ſatisfactory ſcheme has yet taken place; but that to enrich a few ſuperior officers, England ſhould deprive thoſe very men of their rights and liberty, to whoſe valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, ſhe looks for her preſervation.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, firſt enacted by the authority of parliament ſoon after the reſtoration; but new-modelled and altered ſince the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In theſe articles of the navy, almoſt every poſſible of-

fence is ſet down, and the puniſhment annexed, in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice; whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed, or wounded, or ſuperannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates or from the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; they are alſo allowed the exerciſe of trades in corporations, and the power of making teſtaments. No ſeaman aboard the king's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs it be ſworn to amount to at leaſt twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value*.

Sea officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which correſponds with the annual military act, paſſed for the government of the army; yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction, in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. But thoſe civil magiſtrates, who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, as the frequent employment of the military power in a free government, is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

MONEY.] In Britain, money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence; twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas and halves, quarters having fallen into an almoſt entire diſuſe; the ſilver, of crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, and ſix-pences; and the copper money of half-pence and farthings. The preſent ſtate of Britiſh currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of many of the latter being worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public ſubmitting to loſe the difference between the bullion of the new and old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but they are not generally current.

ROYAL TITLES AND ORDERS.] The title of the king of England, is, By the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the

* The royal navy of Britain as it ſtood Auguſt 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Guns.	No. of each rate.	Complement of men.	Men.	Weight of metal.	Metal.
1ſt.	100 and upward	5	—	875 to 850	—	42 24 12 6
2d.	98 to 90	20	—	750 to 700	—	32 18 12 6
3d.	80 to 64	130	—	650 to 500	—	32 18 9 6
4th.	60 to 50	27	—	420 to 380	—	24 12 6 & 18 9 6
5th.	44 to 32	102	—	300 to 220	—	18 9 6 & 12 6
6th.	30 to 20	50	—	200 to 160	—	9 4
		334				
Sloops,	18 to 14	143	—	125 to 110		
Bombs, Fireſhips, &c.		19				
Total,	—	496				

In commiſſion, 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 ſloops. When a ſhip of war becomes old, or unfit for ſervice, the ſame name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a ſingle beam of the old veſſel remains, the name cannot be changed, unleſs by act of parliament.

faith. The designation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her grace, or highness, till Henry VIII. to place himself on a level with the emperor Charles V. assumed that of majesty; but the old designation was not abolished till the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of defender of the faith was bestowed upon Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king against Luther, and the reformation. Besides the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as elector of Hanover, duke of Brunswic, Lunenburg, &c.

The titles of the king's eldest son, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, earl of Chester, electorial prince of Brunswic, and Lunenberg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the most honourable in England, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the sovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, and of 25 companions, called knights of the garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon. The medal is commonly enamelled on gold, and suspended from a blue ribband. St. George is supposed to be the tutelary saint of England. He was originally a Cappadocian.

Knights of the BATH, so called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are supposed to have been instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399. This order having been discontinued, was revived by king George I. in 1725.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can scarcely be said to belong to any order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They were instituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland: but at present their number amounts to seven hundred.

A knight is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and in general signifies a soldier serving on horseback; a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himself to the appellation of *sir*. In the common laws they are called *milites* or soldiers; and they are made, by the king laying a sword upon their shoulders, and desiring them to rise by the title of *sir*. It is a mark of personal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not descend to posterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now disused. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portsmouth, the king conferred the honour of knights bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the supporters.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *esquire*, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called *armigeri*. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but is at present applied promiscuously to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman, without trade; and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, who settled on the opposite shore: a supposition founded upon their resemblance in language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cesar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated the conquest of Britain, the natives were much connected with the Gauls, and

other people of the continent. Cesar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which were accompanied with vast difficulties, and were, as he alleged, attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. His victories were incomplete and indecisive: nor did the Romans receive the least benefit from his expeditions, except a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at Cesar's arrival, were governed by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head: and this form of government long continued among them.

In their manner of life, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates, who have been already mentioned; they sowed corn, but chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was skins, and their fortifications, beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots, and they fought with lances, darts and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In place of marriages, they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cesar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communication between Rome and Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cesar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, made a vigorous defence against the Romans. The former, after a war of eighteen years, was taken prisoner in a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius, gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the time. Boadicea, being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time that the Romans remained in that island, they erected those walls before-mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts: and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants. That this was the case appears plainly from the defenceless state of the Britons, when Rome recalled her forces from that island. During the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy. It is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives made a brave resistance against those tyrants of nations. The Roman emperors and generals, while in that island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts, and they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

Upon the inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and

centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreaſed in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always oppoſed the progreſs of the Romans in that iſland, advanced more boldly into the ſouthern parts, carrying terror and deſolation over the country. The intimidated Britons were ſo accuſtomed to have recourſe to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored their return. But the Romans, reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with diſtant expeditions, acquainted the Britons that they muſt no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence. That they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone, the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, for about 400 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, attacked the wall of Severus with redoubled vigour, and ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The Britons had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over an epiſtle for relief, which was addreſſed in theſe words: *to Aetius, thrice conſul: the groans of the Britons;* and, after other lamentable complaints, ſaid, *that the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left, of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whoſe advice, the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh Channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo alluring, that in a very little time, Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near one hundred and fifty years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature was at this time ſo rude in England, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who ſeems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions indeed a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected hiſtory. We can therefore only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieſſin, whoſe works are ſaid to be ſtill extant, with others of leſs note. Arthur ſeems to have been upon the whole the moſt memorable character in Britiſh hiſtory. His ſuperior abilities reſtored the declining affairs of the Britons. He defeated the Saxons in twelve battles, and what ſets his celebrity beyond all compariſon, is, that ſix or ſeven hundred places in the iſland ſtill bear his name. After numerous and very bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons conquered all England to the ſouth of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts ſeem to have been maſ-

ters of all the territory to the north, though they ſuffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created much confuſion in hiſtory.

We have already given a ſketch of the conſtitution and government which the Saxons introduced into England, and which forms by far the moſt valuable part of their ancient annals. Ethelbert, king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being deſcended from Hengiſt, one of the firſt invaders, married the king of France's daughter, and ſhe being a Chriſtian, pope Gregory the Great ſeized that opportunity to enforce the converſion of her huſband to Chriſtianity. For that purpoſe, about the year 596, he ſent over to England, Auſtin, the monk, who converted the king and his people, and alſo Sebert king of the Eaſt Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he is ſaid to have perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks. Auſtin is accounted the firſt archbiſhop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

The Anglo-Saxons were happier than the nations on the continent; being free from the invaſion of the Saracens, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time, in the year 694, to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his Church Hiſtory of Britain from the coming in of the Saxons, down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs-working, were introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. Ale and ale houſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians, in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged by ſtate jealouſies to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Birthric, king of the Weſt Saxons. At the court of Charles, he acquired the arts both of war and government. The northern nations, under the name of Danes, then infeſted the ſeas, and were no ſtrangers to the coaſts of England; for about the year 833, they made deſcents upon Kent and Dorſetſhire, where they defeated Egbert in perſon, and carried off abundance of booty to their ſhips. About two years after, they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Corniſh Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief place of reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of deſolation, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after oppoſing them bravely for ſome time, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried

with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) were ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhow his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin, biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death after his return from Rome, his dominions were divided between two of his ſons, Ethelbald and Ethelbert, Athelſtan being then dead: but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſts, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought many battles with the Danes, with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd. He ſtill, however, kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and, by their aſſiſtance, he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power, by which he ſecured his coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into diſuſe ſince the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a ſcholar, but an author: and he tell us, that upon his acceſſion to the throne, he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings in palaces, as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times; but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt-India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt ſo far north as commonly the whale hunters uſe to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies, againſt the Danes, in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly dignified with the epithet of the great.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince, to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be on an equality with a *thane* or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the ſcriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions were confined, towards the north, by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was ſucceſsful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors,

Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England. His reign was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. He was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son, Ethelred, mounted the throne in 978. The nation was at that time harassed by the Danes. To be liberated from them, Ethelred agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002, they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English. But this atrocity served only to enrage the Danish king, Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons out of England, into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the great; but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Ethelred's son, Edmund Ironside (so called from his great bodily strength), to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom. His son Harold Harefoot, who succeeded him, in 1035, did nothing memorable: and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince, that with him the Danish royalty ended in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, commonly called the confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward the confessor was a mild, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister, earl Goodwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment of him. It is said, that he devised the succession of his crown to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that, upon the death of the confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, possessed that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of land and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means, he collected 60,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions of the Danes, William landed in England without opposition, Harold, returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Hastings, in Sussex, now stands. A most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; and, Harold being killed, the crown of England was seized by William, in the year 1066.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little, but that they were in general, a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so late as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion of the duke of Normandy. Conquest placed the people in a situation to receive slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and to correct their rough and licentious manners.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman. The death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knights fees,* which are ſaid to have mounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great leaders who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. To one of his favourites he gave the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of the ſceptre. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the white tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every meaſure poſſible to obliterate even the traces of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution; though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that had been taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the confeſſor's time) and an account to be taken of the villains, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book, called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. In this tranſaction we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel which we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William, ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour; and, with incredible celerity, tranſported a brave Engliſh army, and invaded France. He was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, in the ſixty-firſt of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England. He was buried in his own abbey, at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility; who either fell in battle, in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans gained much of the Engliſh lands and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to that crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded.

* Four hides, or 480 acres of land, made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee: and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure, to the crown and kingdom.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the conqueror's ſons, Robert and William Rufus, and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and conſequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which the latter levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations which he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally killed, hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

William Rufus was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his elder brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry, partly by force and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; meanwhile quieting his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed and ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a faithful ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party, until her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141. Being carried before Matilda, ſhe impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England, in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been likewiſe taken priſoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the leaders of the nobility, propoſed an accommodation, to which the parties agreed. Stephen was to retain the

name and office of king; but Henry was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. This accommodation was received with joy by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars; and Stephen having ſoon after died, Henry mounted the throne without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered conſiderable abilities for government, and had performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly improved, by the privileges granted to them in the ſtruggles between the late kings and their nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and advanced the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman remained in one of them a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices which the inhabitants had performed for his mother and himſelf.

He reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands, made by Stephen. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. In attempting to reſiſt them, he was oppoſed by the celebrated Thomas Becket, whom he had promoted to the ſee of Canterbury. Becket was popular, intrepid, impetuous, and inflexible, and as great an enemy to the deſpotiſm of the barons, as Henry was to the authority of the church. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, and the conſtitutions there enacted, were regarded as in fact aboliſhing the dominion of the Roman ſee over the clergy of England. It became very ſoon after convenient for Henry to remove Becket from his kingdom, and accordingly the prelate was arraigned, and ſaid to be convicted, for robbing the public treaſury, while he held the office of chancellor. Becket fled into France, where the pope, and the French king, eſpouſed his quarrel. Thoſe of the Engliſh clergy, who adhered to Henry, were excommunicated, and his ſubjects were abſolved by the pope from their allegiance. Henry was immediately reduced to the neceſſity of ſubmiſſion, and Becket was reſtored to his country and his office in the year 1170. Henry's hatred of the archbiſhop was, however, no ſecret, and he was heard to ſay, "Will nobody revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Upon this hint, four knights, who heard theſe words, ſet out from Normandy, where Henry then was, for England, and arriving in Canterbury at the head of a party of ſoldiers, they found the archbiſhop in his palace, ſurrounded by ſome of his clergy. After a ſhort converſation, the conſpirators retired, and Becket went into the church, to evening ſervice. Here they followed and murdered him at the altar. The death of no individual probably ever excited ſuch univerſal indignation. Henry's affairs were on the verge of ruin, upon the ſuſpicion that he was privy to the murder; and he found it neceſſary to ſubmit to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of Becket, to appeaſe the rage of the people.

Henry endeavoured to cancel the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and he reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner; and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay homage to Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions.

Henry diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, heireſs of Guienne and Poicton, he became almoſt as powerful in France as the French king himſelf, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. In his old age, he was unhappy, having embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond. His inconſtancy was reſented by his queen Eleanor, who ſeduced her ſons, Henry, Richard, and John, into re-

peated rebellions, which affected their father ſo much as to throw him into a fever, of which he died at Chinon in France, in the year 1189, and the 57th year of his age. The ſum which he left in ready money at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated; but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l.

Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into ſix parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year, and hold *aſſizes*, to adminiſter juſtice to the people, as is practiſed to this day. He ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous practice of forfeiting ſhips which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were left alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. He was alſo the firſt king of England who levied a tax on the moveable or perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy war made them ſubmit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became in following reigns an uſual method of ſupplying the neceſſities of the crown. As a ſpecimen of the ferocious manners of the twelfth century, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. The pope's legate ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy perſuaded him to make a ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral bloody, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; in his return to England, he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria, who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000l. of the preſent Britiſh money. To raiſe this ranſom proved ſo difficult, that all the church plate of his dominions is ſaid to have been melted down. A tax was likewiſe laid on all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, of one-fourth of their income for one year; and twenty ſhillings on every knight's fee; alſo one year's wool was borrowed of the Ciſtercians; beſides money raiſed upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks were beſtowed by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at that time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings ſterling, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard upon his return, found his dominions in great diſorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he pardoned; and by the invaſions of the French, whom he repelled; but he was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons, in the year 1199, in the 42d year of his age, and 10th of his reign.

His brother John, who ſucceeded him, is ſaid to have put to death Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had a right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court, as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he declared himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſubmiſſions to the pope,

and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed, ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact nothing more than a renewal of thoſe immunities, which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, became applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, while the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This offended the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive leſt their country ſhould become a province to France, they returned to their allegiance to John; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the ſtone bridge, as it ſtood ſome years ago, was finiſhed acroſs the Thames at London. The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave the city a charter to chooſe a mayor out of her own citizens, and to elect ſheriffs and common council men annually, as at preſent.

The crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years old. He was a feeble and inſignificant prince. The events of his life are ſo complicated and unimportant, that, as mr. Hume has obſerved, no power of eloquence, or charms of compoſition, could make them worthy of a peruſal. They conſiſt entirely of frivolous, though bloody quarrels with his barons, and his clergy. His ſon Edward being engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, in the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign. Intereſt had in that age amounted to an enormous height. There are inſtances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money. This tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions which they ſuffered, from the bigotry of the age and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to remove with their effects from the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,000 marks, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and, on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent: the Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed, and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the ſolemnity; and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for all who could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and ſagacious prince, and being well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and improvements

of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, annexed their principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon. He regulated the forms of parliament as they now ſtand, with little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his ſubjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great uſurers and money-dealers of the times, he, beſides other ſcenes of the like kind, hanged two hundred and eighty in one day, on an accuſation of having adulterated the national coin: the reſt, to the number of fifteen thouſand, he expelled out of England, and ſeized all their property. We have in the article of Scotland, mentioned the unjuſtifiable manner in which he aboliſhed the independency of that kingdom. He had frequent wars abroad, eſpecially with France, in which he was not very ſucceſsful; and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons and great nobility, had the deſign been practicable.

His connexions with the continent produced ſome advantages to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been invented, in the former reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay and mark of the goldſmith's company. Edward often conteſted with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a final expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhowed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveſton, his chief minion, a Gaſcon, being baniſhed by his father, he mounted the throne with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter to the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had loſt in France. The barons obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received, in 1314, the greateſt defeat that England ever ſuffered. Gaveſton was beheaded by the barons, who placed young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king; but he ſoon became his favourite. Through his pride, avarice, and ambition, he was baniſhed, together with his father, who had been created earl of Wincheſter. The queen, a reſtleſs and worthleſs woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many of the feudal tyrants fell victims to the queen's revenge. At laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active among the rebels. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and, going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that, returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing was now wanting to complete her guilt, but the murder of her huſband. A few months after he had been made priſoner, he periſhed in Berkley caſtle, by a ſpecies of death too ſhocking to be deſcribed.

The misfortunes of Edward II. were in part brought upon himſelf by his imprudence and miſconduct. His government was ſometimes arbitrary, and he was too much engroſſed by favourites, who led him into ſanguinary meaſures. It was alſo a misfortune to him, that he was oppoſed by Robert Bruce, king of Scotland,

in consequence of whose military and political abilities, and their own civil contentions, the English lost that kingdom. But it has been alleged in his favour, that none of his predecessors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and that he protected his trading subjects with great spirit against the Hanseatic league and the neighbouring powers.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power, by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which service Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, became soon sensible of their designs. At the head of a few chosen friends, he surprised them, in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself died in custody, after a confinement of twenty-eight years. Edward very soon had a quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland. Upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue), who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which, as the French asserted, cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by succession; but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, sister to the three last kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but, the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion the difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies. The English had learned to provide themselves with proper armour, and submit to military exercise and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Cressy, August 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated by 30,000 English, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four). The loss of the French far exceeded the total number of the English army, whose loss consisted of no more than three knights, one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were entirely defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the English army; but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's successes were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had invaded England about six weeks after the battle of Cressy. Thus Edward saw two crowned heads his captives at London. But it must not be forgotten, that he was forced to pawn his own crown, as well as the jewels of his queen in security for the money, which he had borrowed. To return from France into England, he was obliged to solicit the indulgence of his continental creditors. His crown remained for eight years an unredeemed pledge. The French and Scotch kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, after having been eleven years in captivity, and John for three millions

of gold crowns. John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortune declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the *black* prince, from the colour of his armour, undertook to reſtore Peter the cruel to the throne of Caſtile. He ſucceeded but was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene, in Surry, in the year 1377, in the 65th year of his age, and 51ſt of his reign.

Bent on the conqueſt of France, Edward gratified the more readily his people in their demands for ſecurity to their liberties and properties; but his ambition exhauſted his regal dominions; and his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, was leſs powerful than Edward in the beginning of his reign. He invited over and protected fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and eſtabliſhed the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till this time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. In his reign, few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But, notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in England, villenage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was known before his death. The caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contract and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune; which was a great temptation to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter were limited through the whole year to three pence per day, and thoſe of a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks. He was a man of abilities, learning, and piety. The doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers of the ſixteenth century. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the hoſtile deſigns of the pope and biſhops, by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites, or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the black prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and Scotland. John of Gaunt's foreign connexions with the crowns of Portugal and Spain, injured the kingdom; and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others. The conduct of theſe inſurgents was violent, and in ſome reſpects unjuſtifiable; but it cannot be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen years of age, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the revolters, at the head of the Londoners, while Wal-

worth, the mayor, and Philpot, an alderman, under pretence of an amicable conference, ſtabbed Tyler in the back. This aſſaſſination, with the ſeaſonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the inſurrection for that time; but it broke out with the moſt bloody effects in other parts of England; and, though it was ſuppreſſed by making many examples of ſeverity among the inſurgents, yet the common people never afterwards loſt ſight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained thoſe privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the ſuppreſſion of this inſurrection, have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of his dominions on a ſure foundation; but he delivered himſelf up to worthleſs favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, ſon to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Treſilian, and, above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis of Dublin, and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people; and Richard ſtooped in vain to the moſt ignoble meaſures, to ſave them. They were attainted, and as ſtate trials have almoſt always been nothing better than a tragical farce, they were condemned to ſuffer as traitors. The chief juſtice Treſilian was hanged at Tyburn; but de la Pole and the duke of Ireland eſcaped to the continent, where they died in obſcurity. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His barons again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than perhaps any king of England had ever been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who, by his father's death, ſoon after became duke of Lancaſter. Richard tranſporting over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party was formed in England, who offered the crown to the duke of Lancaſter. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct. He was ſoon after ſtarved to death, or murdered in priſon, in the year 1399, in the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his marriages.

Henry the fourth, ſon of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. obtained the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, and the nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt, ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him, by the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs. The Percy family, the greateſt in the north of England, complained of Henry for having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels. Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to remedy the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him and his heirs male, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland, afterwards James I. of that kingdom, fell a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, a circumſtance which was of ſervice to his government. Before his death, which happened in 1413,

in the 46th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which had till then diſgraced his conduct. This monarch reigned and died in agonies of remorſe for the aſſaſſination of his predeceſſor.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on trade in various parts, particularly with the Hanſe towns. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. was the firſt prince who gave to the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me;" or, "As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt, I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſion of parliament, in the year 1401, for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffites, or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtree, pariſh prieſt of St. Oſithe, in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards were numerous, and ſir John Oldcaſtle, lord Cobham, having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. Henry engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces, that had been wreſted from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom, by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt. He had been reduced by his raſhneſs to the utmoſt extremity of diſtreſs; and if the commanders of the French army had not been actuated by ſuperlative madneſs, they might have forced him to ſurrender at diſcretion. This battle equalled the glory of Creſſy and Poictiers, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other noblemen, who were ſlain or taken priſoners. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catherine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and himſelf and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy. By theſe meaſures, the monarchy muſt have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with effectual ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England, to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, in 1422, in the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

By an authentic and exact account of the revenues of the crown during this reign, publiſhed by ſir John Sinclair, it appears that they amounted to eighty thouſand pounds a year, which this writer eſtimates as equivalent, from the cheapneſs of proviſions at that time, to five hundred thouſand pounds of the preſent Britiſh ſpecie. This ſum was not nearly ſufficient to carry on his wars, and this con-

queror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and ſometimes the crown itſelf; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to ſupport the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when, in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great abilities and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many gallant actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. This ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory. She was born of the loweſt extraction, and bred as a cow-keeper, and ſometimes a helper in ſtables, at public inns. She muſt, notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed a fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After a ſeries of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compeigne, and burnt alive as a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431, to the diſgrace of the Engliſh nation.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the efforts of Talbot, the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government; and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the king of Sicily; a woman perfectly fitted for the tempeſtuous period in which ſhe lived, and who excelled whatever is recorded, either in hiſtory or fable, of female valour and fortitude. The cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of his country, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon; and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. He paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted at firſt with profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, and a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York; but, being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſh men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France proved advantageous to the duke of York; and, upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends; but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the utmoſt reſpect to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon, the earl of Warwick. The latter had the

greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him extremely popular. It is ſaid, that, upon an average, thirty thouſand perſons dined every day at Warwick's different manors and caſtles in England. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more proclaimed protector of the kingdom; but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and, in 1459, openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. The queen alone rejected this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, in 1460, where the duke of York was defeated and taken priſoner; and was, by the orders of Margaret, inſtantly beheaded.

It is remarkable, that though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry: but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and, defeating the earl of Warwick in the ſecond battle of St. Alban's, delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northward. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field. Margaret and her huſband were obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with uncommon animoſity. Margaret was as blood-thirſty as her opponents; and when priſoners of either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were perſons of rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions that ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with repeated defeats, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married, Elizabeth, the widow of ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but to conduct the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage was revealed, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation. From being Edward's beſt friend, he became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, they and the French king, Louis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, while Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed War-

wick in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made Margaret a priſoner, together with her ſon, prince Edward, who was murdered in cold blood, as his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, was a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward, being now ſettled on the throne, exterminated the Lancaſtrian party, wherever he could find them.

In the year 1474, the kingdom was in a deplorable ſituation. The king was immerſed in expenſive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his nobility; ſome of whom, to ſupport their extravagancies, became penſioners to France. The parliament ſeemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds; and the duke of Clarence, who had formerly deſerted to Warwick, and again deſerted back to Edward, fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expenſes of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat, with France; but his irregularities occaſioned his death (1483), in the twenty-third year of his reign, and the forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was contrived by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been introduced into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate. The lord Tiptoft was its chief patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or monkiſh Latin. Horace Walpole, a very entertaining antiquarian, has inſerted, in his catalogue of royal and noble authors, a few curious ſpecimens of Tiptoft, and of Caxton. They bear as little reſemblance to the literature of the eighteenth century, as the exerciſes of boys at ſchool do to the verſes of Virgil or Buchanan. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with little prudence, and ennobled many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's want of popularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted the crown, which was offered to him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the great men whom he thought well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the tower by his direction, is doubtful. Horace Walpole, now lord Orford, whoſe ingenuity has illuſtrated, and whoſe eloquence has adorned, this obſcure period of Engliſh hiſtory, is of opinion, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, the ſurviving heir of the houſe of Lancaſter, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and on offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops: but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard,

who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard diſplayed aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour. This intrepid and intelligent uſurper was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother. This event happened in the year 1485.

There can ſcarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by hiſtorians, who were ſolicitous to flatter his worthleſs ſucceſſors. He was exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſion he aboliſhed, and he was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds; an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his reign, ſhort as it was, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had fallen to decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures, and for preventing their importation into England, no fewer than ſeventy-two different kinds being prohibited, by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Piſa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Engliſhmen imported to or exported from that city.

Though the act of baſtardy obtained by Richard affected the daughters as well as the ſons of his brother, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. She was married, as had been before concerted, to Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending families of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the moſt avaricious monarch that ever reigned in England; and, at the ſame time, very jealous of his power; for he ſhut up the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. as a cloſe priſoner in the tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alleged againſt him but his affinity to the houſe of York. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed; as was the impoſture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the impriſoned earl of Warwick: Simnel was taken priſoner, and, after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects. They expreſſed their gratitude by the great ſupplies and benevolences which they afforded him, and, as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act was paſſed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt, were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had reached into England; and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne, by Perkin Warbeck, a young

man, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this ſtripling, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain, that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland, baniſhed Perkin from his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. Perkin made a confeſſion of his impoſtures before his death; but it might have been extorted from him, either by the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Aragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, in the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent in quantity of ſilver to two millions ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand pounds at preſent. This is the computation of ſir John Sinclair. In the reign of this monarch, wheat was ſometimes ſold for three ſhillings and four pence, of old Engliſh money, or ſomewhat more than five ſhillings ſterling. On a moderate average, its preſent price in England is, at leaſt, ſeven times higher. Hence, we are juſtified in eſtimating the value of Henry's treaſure, in the ſame increaſed proportion, and, by this way, two millions ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, are equal to nineteen millions, two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling. To form a proper judgment of the dreadful methods by which this immenſe ſum had been extracted from the Engliſh nation, we muſt remember, that England is, at preſent, about twice as populous, and at leaſt an hundred times as wealthy, as it was at the end of the fifteenth century. When we conſider, therefore, the confined field, upon which this monarch commenced his operations, which were continued without intermiſſion, during the whole twenty-four years of his reign, it ſeems evident, that Henry was an accompliſhed extortioner. Combining the advantages of a modern king of England, with the deſpotiſm of his own exchequer, he would, in the preſent age, have abſorbed in his coffers, one half of the current caſh of Europe. The example of Henry may ſerve as a leſſon to nations, and to kings, of the inexhauſtible reſources, that may be derived from the ſimple and natural exertions of frugality. Edward the third, and Henry the fifth, pledged their crown itſelf for money to ſupport romantic and ruinous wars. Almoſt every other Engliſh ſovereign, from the conqueſt, has haraſſed his ſubjects with mendicant demands. The economy of Henry ſecured him from diſgraceful poverty.

Columbus tranſmitted to Henry his plan for the diſcovery of America. His brother, who was entruſted with the propoſal, obtained the confidence of the Engliſh monarch; but having been detained on his way to England by pirates, Columbus had, before his return, engaged with the court of Spain. On ſuch trifling accidents depends the deſtiny of empires! Cabot, a Venetian navigator, was, in 1498, employed by Henry, in diſcovering the continent of North America. In praiſe of this

king, we muſt obſerve, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for the enterpriſes which they had in view. It appears from Fleetwood, Madox, and other writers, that agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, made conſiderable advances during the reign of Henry.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any other European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did, on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, he might have held the balance of power in Europe, had he been careful to improve his advantages. Imagining that he ſtood not in need of a ſupply, he improved not Cabot's diſcoveries, but ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing a royal navy, for the permanent defence of the nation, led him into incredible expenſes. He was on all occaſions cheated by the emperor Maximilian, nicknamed, *the pennyleſs;* and early in his reign, he gave himſelf alſo entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolſey, the ſon of a butcher at Ipſwich. While he was involved in a French war; his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England. Henry became a candidate for the imperial crown of Germany, during its vacancy, but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, the latter of whom was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry ſuffered both parties to betray him, and paid a great part of their expenſes, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time an enemy to the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Roman catholic church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome doubts with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. The charms of Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, inflamed the ſcruples of his conſcience, and he married her, before he had obtained a divorce from Rome. The difficulties which he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken at being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions. He had long poſſeſſed an almoſt abſolute, though inviſible command of his maſter, and his fall, which was, upon the whole, undeſerved, affords a memorable proof of the peculiar inſignificance of royal friendſhip.

A perplexing conjunction of affairs induced Henry at laſt to caſt off all dependence upon the church of Rome. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of the inconſtancy of Anne Boleyn, he cut off her head, and likewiſe, after a ſham trial, butchered ſeveral of her relations. The immenſe plunder that Henry obtained by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in the kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds. Among other victims, were the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, the marquis of Exeter, and the lord Montague, for holding a correſpondence with cardinal Pole.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, ſuffered her to reſide in England on a pen-

ſion of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency, and it was more than ſuſpected that her exaltation had not corrected her taſte in love. His laſt wife was Catharine Par, who narrowly eſcaped the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. The cruelty of this infamous tyrant increaſed with his years, and was vented on proteſtants and catholics without diſtinction. He put the brave earl of Surry to death, without any crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the ſame fate, had he not been ſaved by the death of Henry himſelf, on the evening before his intended execution. This auſpicious event happened in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

By the help of printing, the reign of Henry VIII. is better known than that of his predeceſſors. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England was commendable; and he ſometimes employed his arbitrary power for the intereſt of his ſubjects. Had his reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it could never have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was ſometimes an encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus; yet he ſeems to have been equally diveſted of moral principle, and of claſſical taſte. In 1539, George Buchanan, by far the moſt celebrated of modern Latin poets, and who can loſe nothing by a compariſon with the firſt writers of antiquity, was driven out of Scotland, by cardinal Beatoun, who had been ſolicitous of conducting him to the ſtake. He addreſſed the king and his miniſter Cromwell, in two very beautiful poems, but without obtaining notice. Henry protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houſes began to have an air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant friend to Cranmer: and upon the whole, he advanced and encouraged many, who became afterwards the inſtruments of a reformation more decent than his own.

This tranſaction began by the ſuppreſſion of three hundred and ſeventy-ſix leſſer monaſteries. Two years after, ſix hundred and five great abbies, together with ninety colleges, and *an hundred and ten hoſpitals*, for the relief of the poor, were by one act annihilated. From an account drawn up in the year 1717, it appears, that the annual income of the houſes ſuppreſſed by Henry, amounted to about two hundred and ſeventy three thouſand pounds, and at a moderate computation, they would now yield, at leaſt, ſix millions ſterling per annum. The monaſteries, previous to their diſſolution, had been the great aſylum of indigence; and the poor-rates, which were ſoon after found or imagined to be neceſſary, derive their origin from the devaſtations of this *pious* monarch. In his reign, the bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh; Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was erected into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king, inſtead of lord, of Ireland.

By a war with France, which coſt Henry one million three hundred and forty thouſand pounds, he acquired nothing but Boulogne and its territories. They could not defray the expenſe of keeping them, and were therefore reſtored to France, by Edward the ſixth, for ſomething leſs than a tenth part of the ſum, which the conteſt had coſt Henry. A notable ſpecimen of the advantages of the war ſyſtem.

Edward VI. was but nine years old at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards protector and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome. Much of the catholic influence remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that

people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms; a meaſure which the late king, with his dying breath, had recommended to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place; and the factions then forming againſt the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies; and ſhe dying, he paid his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a pretence to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block.

The alterations in the church were not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, having been deprived of the relief which they had from abbies and religious houſes, and ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conſcientious man, was firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold. Dudley, duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward into many impolitic meaſures. The reformation went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. The youth of Edward excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, ſuch as the hoſpitals of Bridewell and St. Thomas, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhow the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will; for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by the duke of Northumberland for lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recognized the claim of the princeſs Mary. Lady Jane was beheaded; and her huſband, lord Guildford Dudley, with his father, the duke of Northumberland, ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary, being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded to re-eſtabliſh the Roman catholic religion in England. She lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Cooper, and Latimer, and ſome other clergymen periſhed, beſides other ſacrifices of both ſexes and all ranks, amounting, in the whole, to more than two hundred and ſeventy perſons. As Cranmer himſelf had been engaged in burning a female heretic in the preceding reign, in ſpite of the tears and proteſtations of young Edward, his fate could not deſerve much lamentation. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner, biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief executioners of theſe bloody mandates.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that, by the marriage-articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, with which ſhe ſupplied her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connexions with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart. Her deſirable exit was much more

than a compenſation for whatever England ſuffered by the loſs of Calais. She died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. The Roman catholic religion was the eſtabliſhed one in England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally, whom ſhe had on the continent, was Philip, king of Spain, the principal ſupport of the church of Rome, both on the continent of Europe, and in England. Elizabeth was no more than twenty-five years of age at the time of her acceſſion; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter had taught her caution and policy.

In matters of religion, ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for, in her firſt parliament, in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing the Roman catholic religion were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity was paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergyman in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had been often promiſed a ſafe and an honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head.

As to her affairs with Spain, the ſame Philip, who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe avoided his addreſſes; and, by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home. She ſometimes ſupported the proteſtants of France againſt their perſecuting princes; and ſometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which artifices, ſhe kept that court, which dreaded Spain, on ſuch amicable terms with her government, that it ſhowed no reſentment when ſhe aſſaſſinated the queen of Scotland.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had ſo long amuſed and baffled him, he employed the immenſe ſums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the greateſt general of that age. He likewiſe obtained a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. But the largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; the lord admiral Howard and the ſea officers under him engaged, defeated, and purſued the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days; the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and few of the enemy recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, ſir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip,

and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were wiſe, and the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency; ſhe then ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval commanders, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures, taken from the Spaniards.

After the death of the earl of Leiceſter, the young earl of Eſſex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land-forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, yet ſhe teaſed him by her caprice into the madneſs of taking arms, and then ſtruck off his head. Some years after, ſhe was ſeized with a ſudden fit of melancholy which brought her to her grave in 1603, in the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign; ſhe had previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

Elizabeth ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She overawed the Roman catholics, in her own dominions, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In the year 1600, the Engliſh Eaſt India company received its firſt formation, that trade having till then been in the hands of the Portugueſe, who, at this time, were ſubjects to Spain; Engliſh factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had uſually recourſe to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that, beſides the exorbitant intereſt of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the ſecurity. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the grand ſignior had always conceived England to be a dependent province of France. About 1590, there were in London but four perſons rated in the ſubſidy book ſo high as 400l. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in that city, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of mankind. We muſt reprobate the ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death. An account of her political conduct in Ireland will be given, when we treat of that kingdom.

This queen was equally diſtinguiſhed by perſonal uglineſs, and by more than even a female fondneſs for dreſs. She left behind her a wardrobe, ſaid to contain about three thouſand different gowns. She has been celebrated as the grand reſtorer and protector of true religion in England; but her attention was frequently diverted to leſs elevated objects. The incredible number of her male favourites announces the ardour of her ſenſibility, and the robuſtneſs of her conſtitution. Though in every thing elſe avaricious, ſhe was in this reſpect abundantly liberal. To Eſſex, ſhe at one time gave a preſent of thirty thouſand pounds; and the total amount of the ſums beſtowed upon him is reported, by ſir John Sinclair, at three hundred thouſand pounds, which were equal to at leaſt two millions ſterling in the eighteenth century. Dudley, earl of Leiceſter, was a ſtill greater favourite of "the maiden queen." The nature of the ſervices which excited ſuch a prodigality of gratitude, is fully explained in a letter addreſſed to Elizabeth herſelf, by Mary queen of Scot-

land. This curious production, written in French, has been printed by dr. Gilbert Stuart, in his hiſtory of Scotland. Her domeſtic government was frequently dreadful. A ſingle patent, contrived for the advantage of four rapacious courtiers, occaſioned the ruin of ſeven or eight thouſand induſtrious ſubjects. In 1592, Raleigh and Frobiſher took a Spaniſh veſſel, ſaid to be worth two hundred thouſand pounds. Elizabeth had a tenth ſhare; but her partners were forced to compound for an hundred thouſand pounds. She exacted every new year's day from her dependants, gifts to the value of about ſixty thouſand crowns, and ſhe wrenched an hundred thouſand crowns annually, from non-conformiſts, and Roman catholics, for licences of abſence from the eſtabliſhed church.

We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune, that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction, that he was entitled to all the tyrannical powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor; and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which the ancient nobility were in a great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. It is remarkable, that when Richard the third, and Henry the ſeventh, engaged at Boſworth, England beheld the conteſt with ſo much indifference, that both armies together did not exceed the diminutive number of twenty-five thouſand men. On the acceſſion of Henry, the government paſſed at once from a very turbulent ariſtocracy to perfect deſpotiſm. During the reign of his ſon, political affairs remained in the ſame ſtate, and five unſucceſsful rebellions ſerved only to extinguiſh the laſt ſpark of freedom. In the feeble minority of Edward the ſixth, the nobility began to recover their importance, but were a ſecond time depreſſed by Mary. As Elizabeth was placed on the throne by means of her proteſtant ſubjects, it became neceſſary for her to ſhow conſiderable indulgence to that party, in temporal as well as ſpiritual affairs. The divine art of printing, by far the moſt important diſcovery of ancient or modern ages, had begun to ſhed ſome rays of knowledge among the moſt illiterate claſſes of mankind*. From exertions and ſufferings with reſpect to the next world, men of ſenſe turned their eyes to ſurvey the preſent. In the monarchies of Europe, they could find nothing but a labyrinth of abuſes; and accordingly, in ſeveral countries, a proteſtant and a republican were ſynonymous appellations. In Scotland, for example, the preſbyterian clergy embraced frequent opportunities of treating their ſovereigns with outrageous contempt; and, in ſome of their productions, the principles of democracy are illuſtrated and enforced in the moſt animated ſtyle. Above all, Buchanan, whoſe learning and eloquence commanded the unlimited veneration of his cotemporaries, explained the origin of government, as derived altogether from the people, with an energy and propriety of expreſſion, which has very ſeldom been equalled, and certainly cannot be ſurpaſſed. "Never," ſays a modern critic, "did *the rights of man* meet with a more determined partiſan, with an advocate more acute, eloquent, philoſophical, and ſublime†." This extraordinary perſon was appointed preceptor to James the ſixth, and exerted his

* Cardinal Wolſey had early foreſeen and foretold the conſequences of typography. In a convocation of Engliſh clergy, he gave this memorable advice. "You muſt either deſtroy the preſs, or the preſs will deſtroy you."

† Miſcellanies in proſe and verſe, by lord Gardenſtone, ſecond edition.

utmoſt abilities, though, as he acknowledged, to very little purpoſe, in attempting to cultivate the puny mind of his pupil. His verſes on the birth of that prince, ſo different from the ſycophant abortions of a modern laureat, preſent a ſtriking monument of his fidelity to the duties of his office. But the feeble underſtanding of James was incapable of embracing ſuch a luminous burſt of thought. He diſplayed the additional folly of attempting to proſcribe the writings of an author, who was peruſed with admiration by every man of letters in Europe.

On the acceſſion of James to the throne of England, Henry the fourth, of France, diſpatched his favourite, the duke of Sully, to congratulate him, and if poſſible to perſuade him to embark in *the balance* of Europe. His poverty, his indolence, his timidity, and his common ſenſe, of which he was far from being deſtitute, made this project entirely impracticable. Sully relates that he was much diſguſted by the ſtudied diſreſpect of James for the memory of his predeceſſor. The court of England did not even condeſcend to wear mourning for her death; it appears from ſir John Sinclair, that the expenſes of her funeral were diſcharged with ſome reluctance, and, indeed, the execution of Mary Stuart might have excuſed in James a ſtill more marked violation of decency. His firſt ſpeech in the parliament of England, was not adapted to raiſe a high opinion of his abilities. The harangue laſted ſeveral hours, and an uncommon command of muſcles muſt have been required to hear it without a ſmile. A ſhort ſpecimen may deſerve inſertion.—"And now I muſt crave a little pardon of you, (that ſince kings are, in the word of God itſelf, called Gods, as being his vicegerents on earth, and ſo adorned and furniſhed *with ſome ſparkles of his divinity*,) to compare ſome of the works of God the great king, towards the whole and general world, to ſome of his works towards me and this little world of my dominions."—His firſt important meaſure was an attempt to effect an union between England and Scotland; but he was diſappointed. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon.

The ſeverity of the laws againſt the Roman catholics had exaſperated that ſect to a very high degree, and ſome individuals among them entered into a dreadful conſpiracy to obtain revenge for all their oppreſſions. They hired a cellar under the houſe of peers, and placed thirty-ſix barrels of gunpowder there, with a reſolution to kindle a train, and blow up the whole building on the firſt day of the meeting of parliament in 1605. In this plot, the leaders were neither men of profligate characters, nor of deſperate fortunes. It was the ſpirit of bigotry and revenge only that prompted them to ſo terrible an undertaking. The project was diſcovered, ſome of the aſſociates were killed, and others taken priſoners, who, being on trial found guilty, were executed. Cecil, James's miniſter, a wily politician, has been ſuſpected of framing this plot to ſtrengthen the hands of government by its detection.

That this prince was a ridiculous pedant cannot be denied; and it is certain, that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties, which led him into many abſurd diſputes with his parliament: he and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money; as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay a certain ſum; and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts, in which he ſhowed himſelf more the theologian than the prince, and in 1617, he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, it was eventually productive of many

bleſſings to England; and though his perpetual negociations have given riſe to much cenſure againſt his perſon and government, yet they were leſs expenſive and deſtructive to his people than any wars which he could have entered into. He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, which had been transferred to Elizabeth, upon their diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he obtained from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, who ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom, and electorate, by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he ſtrongly oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; and that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the conteſt, except the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance which he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing is more certain, than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money; and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men, under ſir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany. The Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and the elector hurt his own cauſe, by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites, on whom he ſquandered prodigious ſums. In the firſt fourteen years of his reign, four hundred and twenty-four thouſand four hundred and ſixty-nine pounds were waſted in this way. His firſt minion was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was created earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who for this purpoſe had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning ſir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave ſir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. His eldeſt ſon, Henry prince of Wales, for ſeveral years before his death, poſſeſſed an annual revenue of more than fifty one thouſand pounds, which was at leaſt equal to two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds at preſent. James was ſolicitous to obtain the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the father and ſon, travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, along with Charles, where a farce of courtſhip was played; but the buſineſs ended in nothing.

James was perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands. At laſt he agreed to the marriage of his ſon with the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the fourth of France. James died before the completion of this match. His death happened in 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter ſir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture; and in his reign the poetical genius of England diſplayed its greateſt luſtre, though not encouraged at court. Mr. Middleton at this time projected the conveying of water into the city from Hertfordſhire, by means of pipes, which are now called the *New River*. We ſhall not fatigue the reader by a diſguſting catalogue of the enormous extortions practiſed by James. His wealth was ſpent as diſgracefully as it had been acquired.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta Maria. She diſdained whatever was incompatible in government with her deſpotic education. The turbulence of the people had forced the late king into a quarrel with Spain, and Charles early gave ſuch indications of his tyrannical diſpoſition, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. In a ſhort time Buckingham perſuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots. They were ſo ill ſupported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt in France received an irrecoverable blow. The blame of all the public miſcarriages and diſgraces was thrown, by the voice of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he ſheltered himſelf from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinel Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots, in that enlightened age, juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. Without authority of parliament, he laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was mr. Selden, a gentleman equally diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, and by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court; but their plea was over-ruled; and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every circumſtance now operated towards the ruin of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly or not at all underſtood, levied money upon obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. Among other wretched expedients to raiſe money, Charles ſold patents of monopoly for ſalt, ſoap, and leather, for gauging red herrings, for marking butter caſks, and for gathering rags. By operations of this kind, at once ſo beggarly and deſtructive, two hundred thouſand pounds were obtained, of which, according to Clarendon, fifteen hundred only came to the king's coffers. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces, which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber, in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots, upon this, formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England in Auguſt 1640, where Charles was ſo ill-ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party were ſincere in obſerving the terms, and Charles diſcovering that ſome of their nobility had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, he, by virtue of his prerogative, raiſed a freſh army. All his prepara-

tions were baffled by the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; they were then openly befriended by the houſe of commons, and obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with ſo bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpoſe, that it did him no ſervice; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to riſe in their demands. He made Wentworth, earl of Stafford, a man of abilities, preſident of the council of the north, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Stafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court *, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord preſident of the north, as a miniſter and privy counſellor in England, and as lord lieutenant of Ireland, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. As a natural conſequence, he was, on the 22d of May 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people, to grant the warrant for his execution. Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place, till the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed into a law, the *petition of right*, which was intended by the parliament for the future ſecurity of the ſubject. It is thereby enacted, "That no man ſhall hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or ſuch like charge, without common conſent, by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an almoſt univerſal diſcontent prevailed throughout the nation. Of the inſurrection in Ireland we ſhall give a full account, when treating of that kingdom. The biſhops were expelled from the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtant oppoſition to the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles went in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, mr. Pym, mr. Hampden, mr. Hollis, ſir Arthur Haſelrig, and mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction that he could make. The city of London took the accuſed members into its protection. The train-bands were raiſed, and the mobs were ſo unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkſhire, where he raiſed an army to oppoſe that which the parliament, or rather the houſe of commons might raiſe in and about London.

Notwithſtanding the innumerable acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, numbers repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry, and the greateſt part of the landed intereſt, were much attached to the crown. The parliament however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but their great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave but not enterpriſing commander; he had alſo great dependance on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendancy; but in its progreſs, affairs took a different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill, in Warwickſhire on the 23d of October, 1642; both parties claimed the victory; but the parliament were ſo much

* Strafford attempted to make an apology to his old friends for his deſertion. "You have left us," replied Pym, "but we ſhall not leave you, *while your head is on your ſhoulders.*"

diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England with twenty thouſand horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, that under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, a plan was fixed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, on a ſuppoſition that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, nor for reducing the king too low; and for promoting Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with much loſs to both parties. Two battles were fought at Newbury; one on September 20, 1643, and the other October 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes; and having defeated ſir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea. His infantry ſurrendered priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow that the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been balanced by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſucceſſion of miſtakes, till at laſt his affairs became irretrieveable. Many treaties of peace were commenced, and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to very moderate terms with Charles. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, inſincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment, the affairs of the royaliſts became deſperate. Sir Thomas Fairfax whoſe father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled; ſo that Charles ſucceſſively loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought himſelf ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark; and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians. In this ſituation of his affairs, Charles eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army, before Newark, on May 6, 1640, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, however, were ſo intimidated, by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, that in conſideration of receiving 400,000l, of their arrears, they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners.

The preſbyterians were more inclined than ever to make peace with the king; but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members and voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs while that of the commons was reduced to 150, moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who promiſed himſelf relief

from thoſe diſſenſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into the hands of colonel Hammond, the parliaments governor of the Iſle of Wight. A freſh negociation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and convinced of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeized upon his perſon, brought him a priſoner to London, carried him before a court of their own erection, and, after an extraordinary trial, in which he refuſed to plead any defence, they ſtruck off his head before his own palace at Whitehall. This great act of juſtice was accompliſhed on the 30th of January, 1648-9, in the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Some have ſuppoſed that Charles, had he been reſtored to his throne, would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt. In ſpite of the tyranny of his government, his death was extravagantly lamented by great numbers; and many, who had been his opponents in parliament, became, in the courſe of the civil war, converts to his cauſe, in which they deſervedly loſt their lives and fortunes. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England; Henry, duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration; the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England; and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia.

The republicans who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed great abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they made prodigious exertions for aſſerting the importance of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians; and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Cromwell invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots, at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and, declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were till then thought invincible at ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans.

By this time Cromwell, who hated ſubjection to a parliament, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and other Engliſh admirals, ſpread the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten; for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, but with 300 muſqueteers, to parliament, and diſſolved it, opprobriouſly driving the members from the houſe, of which he locked the door, and put the key into his pocket. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to aſſemble at Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in leſs than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral

Van Tromp. Cromwell, during all this time, wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in that reſolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed as much power as had almoſt ever been annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new-model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive.

A deſire to fill his coffers made him take part with France againſt Spain. He lent the former 6000 men, who took Dunkirk, of which he kept poſſeſſion. Finding that his uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party, as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing the character of Cromwell have been dazzled by his aſtoniſhing ſucceſs, and by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult the ſtate papers of his ſecretary Thurloe and others, the ſurpriſe in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a reign, (for what other name are we to give it?) of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who as it were inſtantaneouſly, called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any plan of legiſlation, and his ſafety was owing to the different ſentiments of government that prevailed among them. In the year 1651, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thouſand pounds; of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and ſoccage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances, that had been complained of during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year, the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions three hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England from the year 1648, to the year 1658, increaſed greatly in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. The famous navigation act was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant meaſures. In fact, the principles of the independents, the ſect to which Oliver belonged, were very like thoſe of the preſent democracy of France. They were equally hoſtile to the exiſtence of monarchy, of the peerage, and of a national church. To the above national improvements, we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to augment their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for, ſome time before his death, he affected magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation with the wiſdom and magnanimity of a Roman conſul, and in

many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of foreign proteſtants. He found in Cooper an excellent miniature painter; and his coins, executed by Simon, exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He performed numerous actions worthy of praiſe; and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtration, ſo he paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

No friend to the Britiſh conſtitution can ever ſpeak of Cromwell with much reſpect. Under the name of a republic, there was all the tyrannical ſpirit of deſpotiſm. The people had no ſhare in the legiſlation. Cromwell, with the title of protector, exerciſed all the powers of an arbitrary monarch. His parliaments were but a name. He made what laws he pleaſed; and by the help of his army, which ſupported them, he carried them into execution, and forced all to ſubmit to his will.

Richard Cromwell, an honeſt but unambitious man, ſucceeded his father in the protectorſhip. He was placed in this office by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he ſoon after ſunk into peaceful obſcurity, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition. The preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting the reſtoration of Charles the ſecond, of which they had very ſoon reaſon to repent; but it was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who dreamed that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient ſyſtem. George Monck, who was ſucceſſively a traitor to all parties, had the principal ſhare in reſtoring Charles II. For this baneful ſervice, he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. was reſtored, or ſtrictly ſpeaking, elected, in 1660. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. Fortune has never diſplayed her levity more ſtrikingly, than by the very undeſerved elevation of this worthleſs adventurer. From his defeat by Cromwell at Worceſter, to his arrival at Paris, about ſix weeks had elapſed, and in that, as De Retz obſerves, he had not once changed his ſhirt. After an exile for ſeveral years, he was ſuddenly advanced from penury to the throne of three kingdoms, and a civil liſt of four hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds per annum. The cauſes of this ſtrange revolution may be traced to the ignorance of the great body of the people, who never properly underſtood their own rights and intereſts. The ſyſtem of war and taxation, ſupported by their ancient monarchs, had been continued by Cromwell, from the neceſſity of bridling their turbulence, and diverting it from himſelf to foreign objects. The nation had been ſucceſſively betrayed by the leaders of all parties; they were equally diveſted of knowledge, of judgment, of unanimity, and of fortitude, to act for themſelves, and in the choice of Charles could at worſt fear only a change of rulers. Had they been capable of adopting a liberal and philoſophical plan of government, and equal repreſentation, an univerſal right of conſcience, and of citizenſhip, they would not likely have ſent for Charles Stuart to aſſiſt them in ſettling their conſtitution.

The extravagant joy manifeſted on his arrival in England, muſt be aſcribed to the ſame humble inſtinct, by which a dog wags his tail on the return of his maſter. Thoſe who exulted in the reſtoration of monarchy, regarded it chiefly as a ladder by which they expected to aſcend to the ſummit of importance. It was neceſſary that ſome party ſhould be diſappointed, and it is not certain that the two thouſand preſbyterian clergymen ejected on Bartholomew's day in 1662, would, if victorious, have made a leſs diſgraceful uſe of their authority than their antagoniſts. The fate of the republic of England may ſerve as a warning to others ſtates, to ſpread, as widely as poſſible, the light of political

information, ſince a proper acquaintance with their own rights is the ſureſt baſis of felicity to the citizens of a republic. Jamaica, which had been conquered by Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. But Charles ſunk into indolence and the company of looſe women; faults which had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with more convenience and elegance proves the increaſe of trade. There were no bounds to the profligacy of Charles, which led him into the moſt extravagant expenſes. He ſold Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered away the immenſe ſums granted by parliament. The price as ſtated by mr. Hume, was 400,000l. ſterling. His ſecret connexions with France were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of his kingdom, and infamous to his memory.

He gave way to the popular clamour againſt Clarendon, as the adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk. He was an epiſcopal bigot, of knowledge and abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt miniſters, but was ſacrificed by Charles to the ſycophants of his hours of licentiouſneſs. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on under the duke of York; but, through Charles's miſapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England. They ſailed up the Medway as far as Chatham, and deſtroyed ſeveral ſhips of the line. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Britain and the ſtates general.

In 1671, Charles ſeized upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 per cent. and ſhut up the exchequer. He pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic, for the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet and diſplayed bravery in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt of the numerous natural ſons of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries. Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, but for the vanity of Lewis XIV. who was in haſte to enjoy the triumph in his capital. All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the victories which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular diſcontent at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000l. which they paid him. Charles complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in the coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up; but in a few days after, they were opened again. Great rigour and ſeverity was exerciſed againſt the preſbyterians, and all other non-conformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addreſſed him to make war with France in the year 1677, but he was entirely devoted to that crown, and received its money as a penſioner regularly, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be abſolute. The trade of England was now much increaſed, and Charles entered into ſome vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

His connexions with France, gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exaſperated againſt the French and the Roman catholics; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir to the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered any conceſſions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were ſecretly determined that the duke of York ſhould never reign. In 1678, the infamous and deteſtable Titus Oates, and ſome others, pretended to diſcover a plot, charging the Roman catholics with a

deſign to murder the king, and to introduce their religion by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more inconſiſtent, than ſome parts of their narrative, yet it was ſupported with the utmoſt zeal on the part of the parliament, to anſwer their ſiniſter views. The aged lord Staſford, Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other catholics, were publicly executed on the evidence of perſons whoſe perjury is not only now incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed, but muſt have been from the moſt contradictory teſtimony known to the very judges who condemned theſe ſufferers. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire to the continent, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an impoſture, yielding to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. The bill, after paſſing the commons miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of the people.

The duke of York and his party on their ſide diſcovered a plot formed by the proteſtants for killing or ſeizing the king, and altering the government. Lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the catholic ſucceſſion, Algernon Sydney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death*. The city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It has been conjectured that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth and to have executed ſome meaſures for the future tranquillity of his reign; when he died, February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa; he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters have ſince enriched the ſtock of Britiſh nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, we have been ſufficiently explicit as to the principles, or, properly ſpeaking, as to the want of them, both in the king and in the oppoſition to his government. The heads of the latter were preſbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been active in the war againſt the late king, and the uſurpations that followed. They had been raiſed and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being uſeful in bringing their party into his meaſures; and he would probably have ſucceeded, had not the remains of the old royaliſts, and the diſſipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleaſure. The preſbyterians, however, availed themſelves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervor of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament ſuch a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneaſy; and it was owing perhaps, to them, that civil liberty and proteſtantiſm now exiſt in the Engliſh government. On the other hand, they ſeem to have carried their jealouſy of a Roman catholic ſucceſſor too far; and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been ſatisfied with the legal reſtraints and diſabilities which Charles offered to impoſe upon his ſucceſſor. This gave ſuch a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almoſt maſters of the laws and liberties of England; they governed

* In Dalrymple's memoirs of Britain and Ireland, ſatisfactory evidence has been produced, that ſome of the moſt flaming patriots of that age were penſioners to France. Thoſe who queſtion this circumſtance, may conſult a note added by mr. Hume to the firſt poſthumous edition of his hiſtory, vol. 8, page 143.

in an arbitrary manner, and were ſupported by the clergy who preached up the old doctrines of paſſive obedience and non reſiſtance. Flattering addreſſes were preſented from many perſons, aſſerting the prerogative of the crown to the moſt extravagant height.

In the reign of Charles, the court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found who could admire Milton as well as Dryden; and this reign was equally diſtinguiſhed for mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved and underſtood the arts, but neither encouraged nor rewarded them. His memory has been cenſured for being the firſt Engliſh prince who formed a body of ſtanding forces, as guards to his perſon, though that precaution had been adopted by Henry the ſeventh. He carried the art of ſhip-building to excellence: and the royal navy of England, at this day, is much indebted to his own and his brother's attention to naval affairs. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a Roman catholic, and died ſuch, of which there are now inconteſtible proofs.

The oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and, as ſuch had aſſumed the title of king. The duke's head was cut off, July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers were hanged, drawn and quartered, in the weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity, conducted by Jefferies and Kirk, ſcarcely ever equalled in any country. James, upon this ſucceſs, raſhly reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment diſappointed him. He employed the moſt offenſive meaſures for rendering the catholic the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court; openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's agent's, and treated them with uncommon reſpect. He impriſoned ſeven biſhops for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, by which he greatly alarmed his proteſtant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his ſubjects were diſapproved, as deſperate, by the pope himſelf.

In this extremity, many individuals, both in England and Scotland, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, by his marriage with the princeſs Mary: he embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, pretending it to be his ſole intention to reſtore church and ſtate to their due rights, and diſclaiming, in the name of God, all deſign on the government. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter, the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and fled to the prince of Orange. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded by the emiſſaries of William, and by Jeſuits, who wiſhed him rather to quit his throne, than fail of reſtoring the Roman catholic religion*. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen and ſon, then ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England; which event is termed, in Engliſh hiſtory, *the revolution.*

* It is now inconteſtibly proved, that ſeveral of James's counſellors, eſpecially Sutherland, were paid by William to urge him to thoſe very meaſures which precipitated his ruin.

This ſhort reign afforded little room for the national progreſs in its true intereſts. James is allowed, on all hands, to have underſtood them, and, had it not been for his arbitrary principles, he would have made a tolerable king.

The folly of James gave advantages to his rival, which he could not otherwiſe have hoped for. When a convention of the ſtates was called, there ſeemed reaſon to believe, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princeſs of Orange. Even then it was not done without long debates. The chief object of William, was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expenſe never before known. Dr. Swift ſays, that this war coſt England an hundred thouſand lives, and ſixty millions ſterling; ſhe gained nothing by it, but the beautiful appendage of Hudſon's-bay. From an enquiry made by order of parliament in 1707, it further appeared, that in the courſe of this conteſt, four thouſand veſſels had been captured by the enemy. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and William gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured. The friends of liberty complained, and with the greateſt reaſon, that this bill was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, in a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided; part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the ſenſe that the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could have provoked them to agree to the revolution; for they never, in other reſpects, had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, according to dr. Davenant, was that year double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which, in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was, in 1688, increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. It was therefore, no wonder, that a ſtrong party, both in the parliament and nation, ſhould be formed againſt the government, which was hourly increaſed by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was very far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expenſe, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſhmen who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their reſtoration by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but, in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe, who were the moſt loyal, gave the higheſt valuations, and were the heavieſt taxed, and this prepoſterous burden ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances, that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary ſecurities, which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projectors of this ſcheme are ſaid to have been dr. Burnet, the hiſtorian, and Charles

Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. Their chief arguments for ſuch a project were, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the revolution intereſt; becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid, but by ſupporting that intereſt; and that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious.

William met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts which he experienced, in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France; but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen, who had died of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age; but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, excepting an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France, at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament; and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It is thought that William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſtry were acquitted from their impeachment; and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Britain.

This act of inſolence rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt act of William's reign was his paſſing, on the 12th of June, 1701, the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover. His death was haſtened by a fall from his horſe ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the eighth of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not adapted by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he loſt ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, of which he had made ſuch ſolemn profeſſion, and for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he often favoured the tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had been moſt hoſtile to their party, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and reſuming their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government was extended to ſilence all enquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the miſdemeanors of the former reign. England, under William, ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to ſixteen millions three hundred and ninety four thouſand pounds ſterling.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded to throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought that ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ as her general the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a ſtateſman.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was

immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance that ſubſiſted between France and that nation till the late revolution in France. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon.

The meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who, though afterwards a leading whig, was thought all his life to have a predilection for James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter; and the earl could truſt no other perſon with that department.

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral important victories were obtained by the earl who was ſoon after created duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate hazard. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the honour of the victory was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general, Tallard, was taken priſoner, and ſent to England, and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, ſir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been about 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhowed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French, was at Oudenarde, in 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French loſt 8000 men, and the *conquerors* twenty thouſand. Thus far we have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh; but they were balanced by great misfortunes.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral; but he entruſted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant; and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the houſe of commons was put into very bad humour, nor did affairs ſeem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immenſe ſums raiſed for the current ſervice of the year were ſeverely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, as it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Auſtrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furniſhed their ſtipulated quotas, and that they truſted to the Engliſh parliament for making them good. A deſign for taking Toulon miſcarried through the ſelfiſhneſs of the court of Vienna, whoſe chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the ſame time, England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

Theſe circumſtances, and many internal diſputes about the prerogative, the ſucceſſion, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen at firſt adhered firmly to the duke of Marlborough, and his friends, who, finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themſelves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents, according to their ſtations, received immenſe emoluments.

The failure of the Germans and Dutch could not, however, be longer diſſembled, and the perſonal intereſt of the ducheſs of Marlborough with the queen began to be ſhaken by her own haughtineſs.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed, on the part of England, by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. The French king complied with all the demand of the allies, except that of employing his own troops againſt the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued ſtill doubtful. But all his offers were moſt inſolently rejected by the duke and his aſſociate, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

The haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg, and the expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France; and from that day fortune began to ſmile on her affairs. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war, in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the people was, that "that church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ſlaviſh doctrines of paſſive obedience, and non-reſiſtance. It was agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's cauſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough and the whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by tories, and even the command of the army was, in 1712, taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his name was almoſt equivalent to an army.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader need not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; by the death of the emperor Joſeph, his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the ſordid infidelity of the allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, made the peace abundantly defenſible. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treaſurer of England, was then conſidered as the queen's firſt miniſter; but the negociations for the peace went alſo through the hands of mr. Prior and lord Bolingbroke, one

of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. The miniſtry endeavoured to ſtifle the complaints of the whigs and the remonſtrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accuſed of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical ſituation. The whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and intereſt of the nation. The majority of the houſe of lords was of that party, but the houſe of commons favoured the court. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and, by an unprecedented exerciſe of her prerogative, ſhe created twelve peers at one time, which ſecured the approbation of her meaſures. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer; after which ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off upon the firſt of Auguſt, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign. She was a favourite with neither party in her parliaments, till towards the end of it, when the tories affected to idolize her; yet her people pretended to term her the *good* queen Anne. The public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the monied intereſt upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry an important ſtep into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Britain; his mother who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England. Many of the Scots, by the deſpotic inſolence of the whigs, were, in 1715, driven into rebellion, but were ſurpreſſed in the beginning of the next year. Some noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were ſurrounded at Preſton, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were ſent priſoners to London, where ſome of them ſuffered. The tories and jacobites raiſed mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England; but they were ſoon quelled, by making examples of their leaders. Lord Oxford was impriſoned for two years: but the proſecution of him by the whigs, for the ſhare which he had in the peace of Utrecht, was ſecretly diſapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition, that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years. By the ſame doctrine, they might have extended the term to thirty years, or they might have declared their ſeats hereditary. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the tower, for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeymen printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of whatever ſeemed to affect their maſter's title; and George I. rendered England altogether ſubſervient to his continental connexions, which were capricious and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns; and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed in the interim, Britain probably would have been invaded by that conqueror, great preparations being made

for that purpoſe. He was incenſed at George, as elector of Hanover, for the ſcandalous purchaſe from the Danes of Bremen and Verden, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed by Britain, France, Germany, and the ſtates-general; and his admiral ſir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended. By the peace of Utrecht, Sardinia had been aſſigned to the emperor, and Sicily to the duke of Savoy. A mutual exchange, in which Britain had no intereſt, terminated the quarrel.

In 1720, England experienced the moſt ruinous and diſtreſſing effects from the ſudden riſe of the ſtock of the South Sea company. The plan of this company had been formed in 1711, for the purpoſe of carrying on an excluſive trade, and making ſettlements in South America. In 1720, the company obtained an act to increaſe their capital ſtock, by redeeming the public debts; and was then inveſted with the aſſiento of negroes which had been ſtipulated between Britain and Spain. The public hopes were ſo ſanguine, that the ſtock roſe to 310l. for 100l. before the bill had the royal aſſent in April; before the end of May to 500; and by the twentieth of June, their ſtock roſe to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but, before the end of September, it fell to 150, by which thouſands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconſiderate avarice of the ſubſcribers, yet the public imagined that the miniſtry had contributed to the calamity; ſome of the directors inſinuated that the miniſters and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the addreſs to eſcape without cenſure, but the parliament paſſed a bill which confiſcated the eſtates of ſome of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance.

The jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at the South-Sea ſcheme, and England's connexions with the continent, which every day increaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion; but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. The proceedings againſt him were irregular, and the juſtice of his ſentence has been queſtioned, though there is little reaſon to doubt of his guilt. After the ferment of this plot had ſubſided, the miniſtry, who were all in the intereſt of Hanover, ventured upon ſeveral bold meaſures, in which, as uſual, the national intereſt and honour were ſacrificed to that electorate. Britain was engaged in every continental diſpute, however remote from her intereſt; and a difference ſtill ſubſiſting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it ſhould be determined by a congreſs to be held at Cambray, under the auſpices of France. This congreſs proved abortive, and England was involved in freſh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September, 1725, a new treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate fleet. This laſt was a fatal as well as a piratical expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes; and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men at the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe. The king, in his ſpeech to the parliament, publicly accuſed the emperor of a deſign to place the pretender upon the throne of Britain; but this was denied by the Imperial ambaſſador at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by ſir William Wyndham and mr. Pulteney, the parliament grew more laviſh in granting money and enormous ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. He is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it was reckoned that a million and an half ſterling were won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which England took in the affairs of the continent. The ſinking fund, for diminiſhing the national debt was inſtituted at this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom was now better underſtood than formerly, and manufactures began to flouriſh where they had formerly been leſs cultivated. Mancheſter has been almoſt entirely built ſince that time, and ſeveral other towns, as Liverpool for example, have encreaſed with uncommon rapidity.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died; and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales it was generally thought, that, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, ſir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally able, as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration, he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt at the next general election. Having compromiſed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaſſies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the ſubſidies paid to the German princes for the ſecurity of Hanover, and had even the addreſs to obtain, from time to time, votes of credit for fulfilling his immediate engagements; and in the mean while, to amuſe the public, he permitted enquiries into the ſtate of the jails, and other matters that did not effect his own authority.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *gin act*, in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in parliament; and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument, and with great eloquence. He was ſo far from attempting to check the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more

open or free than during his adminiſtration. As to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade, and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite; and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all meaſures of government. The debates concerning the Spaniſh depredations in the Weſt Indies, and the proofs that were brought to ſupport the complaints of the merchants, made at laſt an impreſſion even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the oppoſition, in both houſes of parliament, accuſed the miniſter of having, by the treaty of Seville, and other negociations, introduced a branch of the houſe of Bourbon into Italy, and depreſſed the houſe of Auſtria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They expoſed, with invincible force of eloquence and reaſoning, the injuſtice and diſgrace, as well as loſs, ariſing from the Spaniſh depredations, and the neceſſity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert ſtill adhered to his own pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a compromiſe, under the title of a convention with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter; but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales, whom, when on her death bed, ſhe refuſed to ſee. The prince complained, that through Walpole's influence, he was deprived not only of the power, but the proviſion, to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen that Walpole's power was drawing to a cloſe. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt-Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto-Bello; but being a ſanguine imprudent man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs; and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, the intereſt of the prince of Wales was ſo prevalent in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament, who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with indifference, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions) through the ambition of France, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743; and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to avail himſelf fully of the victory, created an univerſal flame in England; and a clamour raiſed againſt the miniſter, was increaſed by the duke of Newcaſtle and his brother, by lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other miniſters, who reſigned or offered to reſign their places, if lord Carteret ſhould retain his influence in the cabinet. George was obliged to give way to what he thought the voice of his people, and he indulged them

with accepting the ſervices of ſome gentlemen who never had been conſidered as zealous friends to the houſe of Hanover. After various removals, mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treaſury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and conſequently was conſidered as firſt miniſter; or rather, the power of the premierſhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle.

Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies ſought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that prevailed in England on account of the king's predileƈtion for Hanover. This ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped, with a few followers, in a frigate, to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to revolt. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterpriſe, to make a ſhort retroſpeƈt to foreign parts.

The war in 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impraƈticable attempt on Carthagena, and by the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742, had been ſpent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of no ſervice to Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before aƈted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Britain, who, in her turn declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to aƈt againſt the French, till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurreƈtions againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they intended not to aƈt in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon him the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but, by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government held a ſecret correſpondence with France, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and ten or twelve thouſand men. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with a treaſure of about four hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the town and fortreſs of Louiſbourg, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt 1745, when the pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a part of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. They were likewiſe victorious in two other engagements at Falkirk and Preſtonpans. They entered the city of Edinburgh, but were ſo miſerably deſtitute of the ſupplies requiſite for a regular army, that they did not venture to beſiege the caſtle, which is incapable of reſiſting a proper attack for ſix hours. The defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of

the united provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch had too much good ſenſe to act heartily in the war. The confederates were defeated at Val near Maeſtricht. Bergen-op-zoom was taken by ſtorm. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and peace became neceſſary to ſave their army from total deſtruction. The French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh fleet, under the command of Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful under rear-admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the fortunes of the French and Engliſh, during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace. The queſtion is not yet decided which party had the greateſt reaſon to deſire it, the Britiſh, French, and Spaniards, for the immenſe loſſes that they had ſuſtained by ſea, or the allies, including the Britiſh, for the diſgraces which they had ſuffered by land.

The preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October, the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the Engliſh in this war, from its commencement to the ſigning of the preliminaries, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French: they loſt, during the ſame time, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. The next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing ever attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after an effectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds. This was an æra of improvements: mr. Pelham omitted no opportunity of executing every ſcheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries; the benefits of which were felt during the ſucceeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent perſon, however, conſidered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had formed the deſign of ſeizing the Britiſh back ſettlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the Engliſh and native Indians. They diſcloſed their intention, by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

In the mean while a new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died Frederic prince of Wales. Mr. Dodington, in his diary*, informs us that he was preſent at the burial; that many marks of diſreſpect were ſhown to the corpſe by the court, and that the board of green-cloth were on the point of refuſing a dinner to the noblemen and gentlemen, who paid the laſt offices of friendſhip to their deceaſed patron. His father employed this method to revenge a quarrel between himſelf and his ſon, which had ſubſiſted for many years. The debts of the prince extended at his death to about two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; and they remain unpaid. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753 the infamous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages. England about this time ſuſtained a loſs by

* Dublin edition, p. 72, 73.

the death of mr. Pelham; he was one of the wiſeſt and beſt miniſters England had ever ſeen.

The encroachments of the French in America, and the diſpoſition which they made for ſending over veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered with eleven ſhips of the line to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French men of war; the reſt of their fleet eſcaped up the river St. Laurence, by the ſtreights of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known, that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, and before any declaration of war was publiſhed, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8,000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into Britiſh ports. This perfidious meaſure was followed by farther ſucceſs; for, about two years after, near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July, 1754, general Braddock, who had been ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near fort du Queſne; but major-general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 100.

The Engliſh navy, in 1755, conſiſted of one ſhip of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 60, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four ſloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; beſides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire-ſhips and tenders. This force was ſufficient to oppoſe the maritime ſtrength of all the powers of Europe. That of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ſhips then upon the ſtocks, amounted to no more than ſix ſhips of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, ſix of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by thoſe armaments, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been defeated, by their admiral Galliſſionere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom; but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king, in order to ſcreen his miniſters, gave up Byng to public vengeance, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth, for not doing what is ſuſpected to have been out of his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time that mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of the adminiſtration. He had been long known as a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be a ſpirited miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of fort St. Philip, which was repaid by the ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The victories of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under colonel Clive, were extraordinary. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa; and Placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who ſupported the French intereſt, was, a few days after his defeat, taken priſoner by the ſon of the new nabob, and put to death. This event laid the foun-

dation of the great extent of riches and territory which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. He planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general ſir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September, 1757; but admiral Hawke brought back the ſea and land forces on the 6th of October to St. Helens, the general having made no attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted without public murmur, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter; who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engiſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a powerful army, the Engliſh parliament voted large ſupplies of men and money to defend it. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation conſiſting of thirty-eight thouſand men. The conduct of this general has no parallel in hiſtory. His troops were forced to give up their arms, without firing a muſket; and the French under the duke of Richlieu, took poſſeſſion of Hanover, and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity bordering on famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended by the French, ſtill remained in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between the Britiſh king and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to the latter, and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. declared that the French had violated the convention between them and the duke of Cumberland, and ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general. He inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover. The duke of Marlborough inſulted the French coaſts, by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, He then marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A war enſued, in the courſe of which the Engliſh gained great but indeciſive victories. Even the battle of Minden contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war.

The Engliſh bore the expences of the war with cheerfulneſs, and applauded the activity and ſpirit of mr. Pitt's adminiſtration. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſburg, in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and had become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade. They there took five or ſix French ſhips of the line. Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell into the hands of the Engliſh; acquiſitions that balanced a defeat which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the ſlaughter at St. Cas, on the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year, proved equally fortunate. Admiral Pococke engaged the French fleet near fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Aimè, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that the crew run her on ſhore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occaſion, and the Engliſh, as they reported, only twenty-nine killed, and eighty-nine wounded. On the third of Auguſt following, he engaged

the French fleet a ſecond time near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. The loſs of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the Engliſh only 147 killed and wounded. On the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels, Laurence and Draper; and after a briſk canonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Gorce on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions were undertaken this year in Americca, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. The firſt was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Gaudaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior force by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works that the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was killed himſelf, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the honour of reducing Quebec, were reſerved for brigadier-general Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. Mr. Amherſt ſucceeded in this enterpriſe; and thus the French empire in North America, became ſubject to Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Britain: but on the 18th of Auguſt, 1759, Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtreights of Gibralter, took Le Centaur of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on the 20th of November, ſir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the Bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſee of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros, of 74 guns, were burnt, and the Juſte of 70, periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns over board; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns, which ran on ſhore in the chaſe.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine officer, with three frigates, alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland. He was overtaken, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips diſpatched in purſuit of him. His veſſels were taken.

The war in Germany continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it as foreign to the intereſts of Britain. The French again

and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation. On the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

George III. aſcended the throne with great advantages. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public, that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. In 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the fortreſs of Pondicherry in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monkton, Lord Rollo, and ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſlands of Martinico, Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms.

In the mean time, mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. He urged his reaſons for this meaſure with his uſual energy; aſſerting that "this was the time for humbling the whole houſe of Bourbon; that Spain was in daily expectation of a rich fleet from the Weſt Indies; that if they could intercept that, it would give a diſheartening blow to their power and pride, and that were this opportunity to eſcape, it might never be recovered." He was over-ruled in council, and he therefore reſigned his ſeals. But the next day, the king ſettled a penſion of 3000l. a year upon mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to continue for three lives. He had formerly aſſerted that Hanover was a mill ſtone hanging at the neck of England. The famous Hogarth took advantage of this hint, and entertained the world by a print of the ex-miniſter with a mill ſtone at his neck, and an inſcription acroſs it, alluding to his penſion. The admirers of his integrity may conſult, among a thouſand other authorities, the diary of Dodington; one of the moſt ſingular and inſtructive publications in any language. A few weeks after he had reſigned the ſeals, the Spaniſh fleet arrived ſafe in their ports, richly laden; an event which added the merit of truth and ſagacity to his laſt advice. After this the court of Spain threw off the maſk, and gave the moſt unequivocal marks of their hoſtile intentions.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation of mr. Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouthern department. It was alſo found neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact, among all the different branches of the Bourbon family, being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, was reduced, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The conquerors themſelves were almoſt exterminated; but fortunately for mankind, the preſent preſident of the united ſtates was among the number of ſurvivors. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures that were there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Phillippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the

French and Spaniards employed their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, the faithful but feeble ally of Britain. This quarrel embarraſſed George the third, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negociations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between the kings of Britain, France, and Spain, was concluded at Paris.

By this treaty the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, was confirmed to Britain; the two Floridas were ſurrendered to her by France and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to the French the iſlands Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſeada; and in conſideration of her granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and quitting her pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to Britain the iſland of Grenada and the Grenadillas, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa, England retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which ſhe nearly engroſſed the whole gum trade of that country; but ſhe reſtored Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that related to the Eaſt Indies, was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company; which reſtored to the French all the places they had poſſeſſed before the war, on condition that they ſhould maintain neither fort nor forces in the province of Bengal. The city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to Britain the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. The iſlands of Belleiſle and Minorca were reſtored to their former owners. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and countermarches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Britain acquired military fame, at the expenſe of thirty millions ſterling! As to the object of that war, it was agreed, that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſat down at the end of it, in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. Peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, and both ſides were to be on the ſame footing as before the war.

This war, to which a period was now put, had been the moſt expenſive in the Britiſh annals. The aſtoniſhing ſums of eighteen, nineteen, and twenty-two millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the ſanction of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people, who were inflamed againſt it by thoſe who during the war had fattened on the public ſpoils, and grown rich by the very accumulation of public debts. The manner in which the treaty was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded, were condemned. The terms were extremely inadequate to what might juſtly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages which had been obtained.

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by mr. George Grenville. Under his adminiſtration, an act was paſſed, for laying a *ſtamp duty* in the Britiſh colonies of North America, which received the royal aſſent, on the 22d of March, 1765. The progreſs and termination of this meaſure ſhall be related in full, when we come to treat of America. We have only, therefore, to obſerve in this place, that the commotions which followed the ſtamp act, induced the king of England to diſmiſs his miniſters. They were ſucceeded, on the 10th day of July, 1765, by the Rockingham adminiſtration. During their ſhort continuance in office, ſeveral public meaſures were adopted to relieve the burdens

of the people, and to ſecure their liberties. On the 30th of July 1766, they gave place to a miniſtry formed upon a plan ſettled by the earl of Chatham. The duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, the earl of Shelburne, ſecretary of ſtate, Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer, and mr. Pitt, who was on that occaſion created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy ſeal; but his acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed this arrangement was not of long continuance, and a variety of changes followed. Mr. Charles Townſhend, a gentleman of abilities and eloquence, but diveſted of principle or veracity, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet, and in parliament, but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was ſupplied by LORD NORTH, whoſe name has long been ſynonymous with official weakneſs, and national calamity. He became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendancy in that adminiſtration, which began the American war without neceſſity, conducted it without ſpirit or prudence, and whoſe ſucceſſors in office were compelled to end it with diſgrace.

In the year 1769, a very important act was paſſed for regulating the conduct of the houſe of commons in controverted elections. Theſe uſed formerly to be determined by the houſe at large, and by a majority of votes, ſo that they were conſidered merely as party-matters, and the ſtrongeſt party, which was always that of the miniſtry, was ſure to carry the point, without paying the leaſt regard to the merits of the queſtion on either ſide. But by the bill, which was now paſſed, commonly called the Grenville-act, as it was drawn up and brought in by mr. Grenville, they were ordered for the future to be decided by a committee of thirteen members, choſen by lot, and under the obligation of an oath; and ſince the enactment of this law, no well-grounded complaint has been made againſt the impartiality of their deciſions.

The French court conſidered the war with the colonies, which had now laſted for three years, as a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Britain. They ſupplied the Americans with arms and ammunition; ſome French officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the king and the thirteen united colonies; and of this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the united ſtates of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

This conduct of France occaſioned the commencement of hoſtilities between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 17th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line and the French of 32, beſides frigates; they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide; and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh, 133 were killed in the action and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been great. Lord Sandwich, who was at the head of the admiralty board, affirmed ſometime after in the houſe of peers that the Engliſh fleet had been beaten.

In the Eaſt Indies an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war under the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of Monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, 1778, in which the former obliged the latter to

retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Britain. In the course of the same year the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; who in return made themselves masters of Dominica, and during the following year they obtained possession of St. Vincent's and Grenada. At the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war and merchant-ships were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the address of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage in the war against England, and assembled forces to besiege Gibralter, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets for a time rode triumphant in the British channel. The nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; and had not sir Charles Hardy escaped into Plymouth, with the British fleet, there is the strongest reason to imagine that the naval power of England would have received a very severe shock. On the 8th of January, 1780, admiral Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Caracas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after he engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. The Spaniards fought with the greatest bravery; but were overpowered by numbers; four of their ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar; two others were driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men was also blown up in the action. In April and May, three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but no ship was taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Britain.

The summer of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of bigotry that had ever appeared in any country. An act of parliament had been lately passed for relieving Roman Catholics from certain "penalties and disabilities "imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was with reason approved by men of sense and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws referred to were generally detested. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England; but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgences to Catholics in Scotland; one of their chapels was burned, and the houses of several of them demolished, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament for a repeal of the late act, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, discontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant to a captain in the navy, became their president, and they increased in numbers. At a time when the nation was surrounded with real dangers, the heads of these weak men were filled with nothing but the fear of imaginary evils; and they even seemed to fancy, that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legislature to prevent some of their fellow-subjects from worshipping God according to the dictates of their consciences. The protestant association at length agreed to a petition, which

was ſaid to have been ſubſcribed by more than an hundred thouſand perſons. It was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of the petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon. Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day, ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by whom the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's inn fields, and another catholic chapel in Warwick-ſtreet, were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards was then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther progreſs of theſe violences; and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, eſcorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob aſſembled, and deſtroyed a catholic chapel in Ropemaker's-Alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool-houſe, and three dwelling-houſes, in the ſame place, belonging to the catholic clergy, with a valuable library of books, and a chapel in Virginia-ſtreet. They alſo deſtroyed all the houſehold furniture of ſir George Savile, one of the moſt reſpectable men in the kingdom, becauſe he had brought in the obnoxious bill. On Tueſday great numbers again aſſembled about the parliament-houſe and behaved ſo tumultuouſly, that both houſes thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a moſt daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refuſed to deliver them, his houſe was ſet on fire: the priſon was ſoon in flames: great part of it, though a new ſtone edifice of uncommon ſtrength, was conſumed; and more than three hundred priſoners made their eſcape, many of whom joined the mob. The proteſtant aſſociation, as they thought proper to ſtyle themſelves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; but their new confederates were animated by the love of miſchief, and the hope of plunder. Two other priſons, the houſes of lord Mansfield, and ſir John Fielding, and ſeveral other private houſes were deſtroyed on the ſame evening. The following day, the king's bench priſon, the new bridewell, ſome Roman catholic chapels, ſeveral private houſes of perſons of that perſuaſion, beſides many other buildings, were deſtroyed by the rioters; ſome were pulled down, and others, ſet on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During theſe extraordinary ſcenes, there was a ſhameful inactivity in the lord mayor of London, and in moſt of the other magiſtrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the miniſtry appeared to be panic-ſtruck, and to be only attentive to the preſervation of their own houſes, and of the royal palace. The magiſtrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the inſurgents; but at length, as all property began to be inſecure, men of all claſſes came to ſee the neceſſity of a vigorous oppoſition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; an order was iſſued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony*, and London was at length reſtored to order and

* Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower, and tried for high treaſon, but acquitted, to the regret of every friend of juſtice.

tranquillity. It is pretended, that no member of the proteſtant aſſociation was executed, or tried, for any ſhare in theſe riots. What truth there may be in that aſſertion, we cannot determine; the fact can only be aſcertained, by comparing the names of the perſons tried or convicted, with the numerous names on the petition, to which few perſons have had acceſs; and there can be no doubt, but that many who were engaged in the riots, were neither tried nor convicted. At all events, it was manifeſtly the bigotry of a few leaders of this combination, to which theſe tumults were indebted for their origin.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies. The American war had occaſioned various diſputes between Britain and Holland. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ſhips were ſeized by the Engliſh cruizers, without juſt cauſe. On the other hand, remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the ſtates-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatia; and that the enemies of Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch. Theſe diſputes continued to increaſe; and on the firſt of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead ſeveral ſhips laden with naval ſtores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. The ſtates-general alleged, that the naval ſtores, which had been ſeized, were not contraband goods, according to the expreſs tenor of the treaties between Britain and Holland, and that the conduct of the Engliſh commodore, which was approved by his ſovereign, was a direct inſult upon the Dutch flag, and a violation of the treaties ſubſiſting between the two nations. Previous to this tranſaction, the Britiſh miniſter had demanded of the ſtates-general the ſuccours which were ſtipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others; and which were now claimed on account of the dangers with which Britain was threatened, and particularly the invaſion with which ſhe was menaced by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the ſtates-general on this ſubject; but they delayed giving any anſwer. On the 17th of April, a delaration was publiſhed by George the third, by which it was announced, that repeated memorials had been preſented by his ambaſſador to the ſtates-general, demanding the ſuccours ſtipulated by treaty; to which requiſitions they had given no anſwer, and had thereby deſerted the alliance that had ſo long ſubſiſted between Britain and the republic, and had placed themſelves in the condition of a neutral power; and that he would conſider them henceforth as ſtanding only in that diſtant relation. He therefore declared, that the ſubjects of the united provinces were thenceforward to be conſidered upon the ſame footing with other neutral ſtates, not privileged by treaty; and he ſuſpended proviſionally, and till farther orders, all the particular ſtipulations reſpecting the ſubjects of the ſtates-general, contained in the ſeveral treaties ſubſiſting between Britain and the republic.

An incident happened, which ſhowed how well founded this declaration was. On the third of September, the Mercury, a congreſs packet, was taken by the Veſtal, captain Keppel, near Newfoundland. On board this veſſel was mr. Laurens, late preſident of the congreſs, who was bound on an embaſſy to Holland. Among his papers was found the ſketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America. Indeed it did not appear, that the ſtates-general were at all conſulted upon the tranſaction; ſo that it was more properly a proviſional treaty with the ſtates of Amſterdam, or of the province of Holland, than with the United Provinces at large. This treaty appeared to be approved by mr. Van Berckel, counſellor and penſionary of the city of Amſterdam. In conſequence of this diſcovery, the king of England demanded a formal diſavowal of the whole tranſaction, and the exemplary puniſhment of

the penſionary Van Berckel and his accomplices, as diſturbers of the public peace, and violators of the rights of nations. The ſtates general not giving an immediate anſwer to this requiſition, freſh applications were made on this ſubject by the Britiſh miniſter; who received for anſwer, that his memorial had been taken *ad referendum* by the deputies of the reſpective provinces, according to their received cuſtom and conſtitution of government; and that they would endeavour to frame an anſwer to his memorial, as ſoon as the conſtitution of their government would permit. This anſwer gave ſo little ſatisfaction, that the Britiſh ambaſſador was ordered to withdraw from the Hague; and a declaration of hoſtilities againſt Holland was publiſhed on the 20th of December, 1780. This meaſure ſeemed at firſt to be applauded by the Britiſh nation; but many conſidered it as a very raſh and impolitic ſtep, and that a war with Holland ought not to have been ſo much precipitated, at a time when Britain was involved in hoſtilities with ſo many enemies.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour; and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere ſtroke in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatia, which was taken by the Engliſh on the third of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet and a conſiderable body of troops, ſummoned the place to ſurrender, the inhabitants were in ſuch a conſternation, that no reſiſtance was made. The private property, goods, merchandiſe, and ſpecie of the inhabitants, were ſeized, as well as the public military and naval ſtores. The capture of ſhipping was alſo very great; upwards of 200 veſſels being taken, beſides a 60 gun ſhip, and a frigate of 38 guns. The iſlands of St. Martin and Saba likewiſe ſurrendered. The ſeizure of the private property, Engliſh, as well as French and Dutch, at St. Euſtatia, was a very rigorous and piratical meaſure, altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and diſgraceful to the Britiſh name. The inhabitants of the iſland of St. Chriſtopher remonſtrated againſt it as a dangerous precedent; it was obſerved that the French nation had acted in a much more humane manner in their late captures. The Britiſh Weſt India planters petitioned the king on this occaſion, repreſenting to him, that they had always conceived it to be a maxim among nations, and eſtabliſhed in humanity and ſound policy, that war ſhould be carried on with the leaſt poſſible injury to private property. But their petitions were diſregarded.

On the fifth of Auguſt in the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the Engliſh accounts, the Dutch ſquadron conſiſted of eight ſhips of the line, and the Engliſh only of ſeven; but the Dutch repreſent their force to have been inferior to that of the Engliſh. On both ſides they fought with great gallantry, and the victory was claimed by both of the contending ſquadrons. All the ſhips were greatly ſhattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ſhip ſunk after the action. The Engliſh by their own account had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and their hiſtorians are, in the common ſtyle, prompt to ſuppoſe that the loſs of the Dutch was much greater.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida.

The ſurrender of the Britiſh army under lord Cornwallis, on the 19th of October, 1781, may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America. The immenſe expence of carrying it on at ſuch a diſtance from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt which it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade, and

the vaſt increaſe of taxes, were evils of ſuch a magnitude, as could ſcarcely be overlooked even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly, on the firſt of March, 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, that aſſembly addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of the war with America. This event rendered a change of meaſures abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry, ſaw the dangers to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally; and, feeling the preſſure of the public burdens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27, 1782, under the conduct of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

Peace was the firſt object of attention with the new miniſtry. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the thirteen united provinces of America, in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were alſo directed to acquaint the congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independence of the united ſtates.

The new miniſters alſo applied themſelves to make ſome retrenchment in the public expenſes, and to reform ſome of the various abuſes which they had inveighed againſt when out of office. A bill was carried for excluding cuſtom-houſe and exciſe officers from voting at the elections for members of the houſe of commons; another for excluding all contractors from being members; and by a third bill, which alſo received the royal aſſent, the board of trade, the board of works, the great wardrobe, and the different offices of third ſecretary of ſtate, treaſurer of the chamber, cofferer of the houſehold, the lords of the police in Scotland, the pay-maſter of the penſions, maſter of the harriers, maſter of the ſtag-hounds, and clerks to the board of green-cloth, were aboliſhed, which, with other ſavings ſpecified in the bill, were computed to amount to 72,368l. per annum.

A ſeries of loſſes had agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. Jamaica would have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with the French under the count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre; and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris, of 110 guns, was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one 64; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was captured, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated. The new miniſtry had ſuperſeded Admiral Rodney, and intended to have proſecuted the enquiry into his tranſactions at Euſtatia; but this victory ſilenced all, and procured him the rank of an Engliſh peer.

May 8th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards. But the defence of Gibraltar, by general Elliot, reflected honour on the Britiſh arms. The formidable attack, on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants. The garriſon was at length relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and

Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French, ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, engaged the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Ally to reſiſt the efforts of ſir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham on the 1ſt of July, occaſioned much commotion in the cabinet. Lord Shelburne ſucceeded him as firſt lord of the treaſury, and, it is ſaid, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to ſome, particularly to Mr. Fox, and lord John Cavendiſh, who, with others, reſigned their places, and commenced a fierce oppoſition in the houſe of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the miniſtry firſt came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old ſyſtem* was to be revived, moſt probably, with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were perſons whom neither promiſes could bind, nor principles of honour ſecure: they would abandon fifty principles for the ſake of power, and they would now ſtrive to ſtrengthen themſelves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to ſee, in a very ſhort time, they would be joined by thoſe very men whom that houſe had precipitated from their ſeats." The duke of Richmond, gen. Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the preſent cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office; and they continued to act with lord Shelburne, till, under his auſpices, the preliminaries for a general peace were ſettled. The public ſoon after beheld mr. Fox and Cavendiſh coaleſcing with the old miniſters, lord North particularly; embracing the men whom they had driven from their ſeats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great conceſſions to the enemies of England, that they might ſtorm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and ſeat themſelves and the men whom they had deſpiſed, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Britain and France*, the former reſtored to France the iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, and the river Senegal, in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in the Eaſt Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it reſtored alſo the iſlands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the Factory of Surat. To prevent diſputes about boundaries, in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and, going round by the north, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the weſtern ſide; and Britain renounced every claim reſpecting the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to reſtore to Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montſerrat; and guarantied Fort James in the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the Eaſt Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Britain gave up to that power Eaſt Florida, and ceded Weſt Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding in future, it was agreed, that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the river Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the

* Preliminary Articles ſettled Jan. 20, 1783.

courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to reſtore the iſlands of Providence and the Bahamas, to Britain; but they had been retaken before the peace was ſigned.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe; but at length it was ſtipulated that Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch ſhould yield to England the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the Eaſt Indies.

The terms of peace were, to many perſons in Britain, a ſubject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary for her to borrow annually ſeventeen millions and a half, by which a million per annum would have been added to the taxes, and twenty-five millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. The ceſſions made on the part of Britain cannot be eſteemed worth the expence of one year's war, eſpecially conſidering the exhauſted ſtate of the country and its revenues and of the national ſpirit, through the rage of parties and the luſt of ambition. Yet when the preliminary treaties with France and Spain, and the proviſional articles with America, were preſented to parliament, they met with violent oppoſition, and were reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and intereſt of the nation. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried, however, in the houſe of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons, by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, having thus enliſted under the banner of the *famous coalition leaders*, mr. Fox and lord North, a miniſterial revolution became inevitable unleſs the cabinet ſhould call a new parliament. As they did not, the authors of the peace were obliged to withdraw from power. North and Fox were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the treaſury, April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne had propoſed, ſeemed now to be dropt. Mr. Pitt's motion for correcting the defects in the repreſentation of parliament, was loſt by a majority of 293 to 149; and the motion of mr. Sawbridge, that leave be given to bring in a bill for ſhortening the duration of parliaments, was rejected by 123 to 56. Mr. Pitt alſo propoſed a bill for reforming the boards of the treaſury, admiralty, ordnance, exciſe, ſtamps, and other offices, which was oppoſed by mr. Burke and other members of adminiſtration, who had moſt ſtrenuouſly contended for that meaſure, before they themſelves had obtained lucrative places. This bill was ſuffered to paſs through the houſe of commons, to amuſe the public, but was rejected by the lords, 40 to 24. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for regulating the government of the Eaſt India company, and their commercial affairs and territories. This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on the 17th of December, 1783, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houſes of parliament. It was aſſerted in the lower houſe, that George the third had empowered lord Temple to report the following meſſage, "that he will not only conſider as not being *his friend*, every perſon who votes for the preſent India bill, but he will look upon thoſe who ſupport it, as *his enemies*; and if lord Temple can find ſtronger words to convey his wiſhes to that effect, he is at liberty to uſe them." After long debate, the commons reſolved by a conſiderable majority, "That it is now neceſſary to declare, that to report any opinion, or pretended opinion, of his majeſty, upon any bill, or other proceeding depending in either houſe of parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and miſdemeanor, derogatory to the honour of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament, and ſubverſive of the conſtitution of this country."

This and other reſolutions, with ſome words which dropped from mr. Fox and lord

North, the next day in the houſe of commons, in ſupport of a motion for adjournment to the next week, which was thought to be intended merely to protract the buſineſs of parliament, and prevent granting the ſupplies, occaſioned their diſmiſſion from the miniſtry. A royal meſſage was ſent between twelve and one on the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to reſign the ſeals of their office; and mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing with him his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince the preſent king's acceſſion.

A diſſolution of the houſe commons being now feared by the coalition, they voted and carried an addreſs to the king, "to repreſent the dangers which appeared to them likely to follow from a prorogation or diſſolution of the parliament in the preſent arduous and critical conjuncture of public affairs, and humbly to beſeech him to hearken to the advice of his faithful commons, and not to the *ſecret advices* of perſons who may have private intereſts of their own, ſeparate from the true intereſts of him and the people." The king aſſured them, that he would not interrupt their meeting by an exerciſe of his prerogative, either of prorogation or diſſolution. Before the houſe adjourned over the holidays, it reſolved, on the 24th of December, "that the lords of the treaſury ought not to conſent or authoriſe the Eaſt India directors to accept any more bills, or to a greater amount than three hundred thouſand pounds, unleſs they ſhall be able to prove to parliament, that they have ſufficient means to provide for the payment of them, after they ſhall have made their dividend and diſcharged the debt due to government, or unleſs they had the direction of that houſe." This was thought to convey an imputation, as if mr. Pitt intended to make a bad uſe of the power veſted by law in the treaſury.

As ſoon as the houſe met, it was evident that the two great rival parties, who had coaleſced and forgotten their former differences and anathemas againſt each other, intented to monopoliſe all the power in the country. On the 12th of January, 1784, the coalition majority, in a committee on the ſtate of the nation, reſolved "that an adminiſtration ſhould be formed, which poſſeſſed the confidence of that houſe, and the public; and the preſent adminiſtration being formed under circumſtances *new* and *extraordinary*, ſuch as were not calculated to conciliate the affections, or engage the confidence of the houſe; and the *preſent miniſters* ſtill holding high and reſponſible offices, after ſuch a declaration, were *contrary to true conſtitutional principles*, and injurious to the king and his people."

It was a new doctrine, that the king ſhould diſcharge thoſe who had by no one act as yet rendered themſelves undeſerving confidence as miniſters, and appoint new ones, out of compliance to one part of the houſe of commons only; and it was impoſſible for him to comply with the reſolution, that he ſhould appoint ſuch as might have the confidence of the houſe, and of the public; for the majority of that houſe was compoſed of the members of the coalition, ſtriving for places and power, and the public, by their numerous addreſſes, were, in general, evidently averſe to their conduct, and incenſed at every thing belonging to the "Coalition." A diſſolution of parliament was the only poſſible method to appoint an adminiſtration which had the confidence of the houſe of commons and the public; ſending the members to their conſtituents for approbation or rejection, and for freſh credentials. On the 23d of January, mr. Pitt's Eaſt India bill was rejected in the houſe of commons, by 222 againſt 214, on the ſecond reading, without ſending it to a committee for diſcuſſion and amendment, and leave was given for mr. Fox to prepare and bring in another. Some independent gentlemen, as they ſtiled themſelves, interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtractions; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

At laſt, February 4th, the houſe of lords took up the affair, and particularly adverted to the reſolution of the commons reſpecting the Eaſt India bills. It was contended, that the houſe of commons had arrogated to itſelf that power which the conſtitution had refuſed, for it denied to the lords of the treaſury that right which the legiſlature in its complete capacity had inveſted them with, namely, the power of permitting the Eaſt India directors to accept bills to ſuch an amount as the diſcretion of the treaſury board ſhould admit; that no one branch of the legiſlature could in any manner ſuperſede a ſpecific ſtatute of the three conſtituent parts; that it was an uſurpation in any one branch of the legiſlature, the king, lords, or commons, to aſſume a power of ſuſpending or diſpenſing with an act of the legiſlature; and that the reſolutions of the commons aſſumed a control, pointing out a ſpecific conduct. Accordingly by a majority of 100 to 53, they reſolved, that for any branch of the legiſlature to aſſume a power to direct or control an authority veſted in any ſet of men by act of parliament, and to be exerciſed by them at their own diſcretion, is unconſtitutional and illegal. They next reſolved, that the conſtitution veſted in the crown the right of appointing its miniſters.

From theſe proceedings it was evident that a war would ariſe between the two houſes, which could only be terminated by a diſſolution of parliament. The commons exclaimed againſt the lords, and proceeded to vindicate themſelves to the public by a long ſeries of reſolutions.

Perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and independent character in the houſe of commons, and in the kingdom, now wiſhed that a diſſolution had taken place ſome weeks before, or even at the firſt forming of the coalition. Many laboured for a conciliation between mr. Pitt and mr. Fox, and their confidential friends; and lord North, at length, conſented to be left out in the forming a new adminiſtration; but the coalition inſiſted on mr. Pitt's reſignation as a preliminary, without which there could be no treaty. This being refuſed, a majority of 21 out of 333 members of the houſe of commons voted a ſtrong addreſs to the king.

His anſwer brought matters to a criſis: the oppoſition now talked of with-holding all ſupplies till George diſmiſſed his miniſters, and proceeded, March 1ſt, to vote another addreſs of more length and greater freedom, which was carried by 201 to 189. The anſwer of the king was firm and deciſive.

The gentlemen who led the houſe of commons, or the ſmall majority of it, into thoſe reſolutions and addreſſes, began now to ſee their miſtake. Their arguments juſtified all the evils that had attended North's adminiſtration, ſince he had for many years the full confidence of the houſe, and would juſtify every other corrupt miniſtry. But they had advanced too far to retreat with decency, and accordingly proceeded to poſtpone the mutiny bill, as a means of protracting their political exiſtence, which they carried by only a majority of nine. On March 8th, mr. Fox made his laſt effort, and moved for a third addreſs, or rather *remonſtrance*, the ſtrongeſt preſented to any king ſince the days of Charles I.

This production was voted by a majority of *one*, 191 to 190, and requiring no anſwer, terminated the diſpute between the different branches of the legiſlature. The coalition-party gave up the conteſt, and looked forward to a ſpeedy diſſolution of the houſe. The national buſineſs went on regularly and quietly; the neceſſary bills were forwarded in both houſes, and the ſeſſion ended on the 24th of March 1784.

The next day a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving the parliament and calling a new one, agreeably to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. On the 18th of May, the new parliament aſſembled, in which Pitt had a majority of more than two to one.

Still oppoſition threw many difficulties in the way of adminiſtration. On the 14th of June, mr. Burke, in a long ſpeech, expatiated on the merits of the laſt parliament, reprobated the ſpeech of George III. at the opening of the new one, and the addreſs of

thanks for it, and ſtated that his purpoſe was to move, "That an humble remonſtrance ſhould be preſented to the king, aſſerting the rights of the houſe of commons, and reprobating the conduct of the king's miniſters in having adviſed him to break his royal word, and diſſolve his parliament, after he had pledged his faith to the laſt houſe of commons that he would not make ſuch an exerciſe of his prerogative, before they had got through the arduous buſineſs upon their hands; and likewiſe for having adviſed him to make a ſpeech to the new parliament from the throne, full of doctrines the moſt unconſtitutional and alarming." The motion conſiſted of many pages, which the ſpeaker was above an hour in reading to the houſe, containing a defence of the laſt houſe of commons, a detail of their rights, and a reprehenſion of the miniſters for having violated them in various inſtances. It was negatived without a diviſion; but as the main queſtion was ſuffered to be put, the whole of the motion was of courſe entered on the journals of the houſe, which ſeems to have been the mover's only intention. The miniſter now went on with his ways and means for ſupplies, and by lowering the tea duty, which he thought would ruin the ſmugglers, he was forced to deviſe other taxes, which are found very heavy and burdenſome to the public. The ſmugglers are not yet ruined, and the window tax eſpecially is both partial and oppreſſive, ſcreening the ariſtocracy, who are to pay but for two houſes, and the higheſt ſum for each is only 20l.

Mr. Pitt brought in his Eaſt India bill, which was carried, on the 5th of July, with very little oppoſition. All the ſyſtem of new bills and taxes was paſſed through both houſes, and the parliamentary campaign cloſed on the 20th of Auguſt, with a complimentary ſpeech from the king, wiſhing that his faithful ſubjects might meet the new and heavy burdens with fortitude.

On the 25th of January, 1785, the parliament aſſembled. Amongſt a variety of matter which preſſed on their attention, none ſeemed of more conſequence than the ſtate of parliamentary repreſentation, the ſyſtem of fortifications propoſed by the duke of Richmond, the affairs of India, and the propoſitions for a trading intercourſe with Ireland. The buſineſs of parliamentary reform was adopted by mr. Pitt as a miniſterial meaſure; he accordingly introduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the 18th of April. This plan was to give one hundred members to the popular intereſt of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thouſand perſons, who by the exiſting proviſions of law, were excluded from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt was to be principally obtained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the number of the houſe of commons would remain the ſame. After a debate of conſiderable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

From the terrors of the nation, during the late war, for the ſafety of the dock-yards, whilſt the combined fleets were in the channel, and no adequate naval force could be muſtered to oppoſe them, the duke of Richmond conceived the idea of fortifying them, as the beſt protection from future inſult. Conſiderable ſums had been annually granted for this purpoſe; but the greatneſs of the expenſe at length attracted the attention of the houſe of commons, and after a full diſcuſſion of the utility of the plan, it was in the following ſeſſion finally determined to diſcontinue the works as uſeleſs, and in ſome reſpects as dangerous.

The Iriſh propoſitions were another ſubject which engaged parliament. This new ſyſtem of intercourſe between Britain and Ireland was firſt introduced into the parliament of the latter kingdom, by mr. Orde, on the 7th of February, in the form of ten propoſitions; theſe were increaſed to eleven. They received the aſſent of both houſes in that kingdom, and on the 22d of the ſame month, were communicated to the parliament of Britain by mr. Pitt. The leading principle in this plan, was to equalize the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries;

and, for the benefits communicated thereby to Ireland, ſhe was in return to give a portion of her revenue towards the maintenance of the navy of the empire.—The ſubject had received but little diſcuſſion, when the fears and prejudices of the manufacturers were rouſed in every part of Britain; innumerable petitions were preſented and evidences heard; committees were formed from aſſemblies of theſe manufacturers, who were directed to oppoſe the paſſing of the propoſitions into a law. It is needleſs to give any farther particulars, as the buſineſs came to nothing.

Amongſt the variety of new taxes impoſed in this ſeſſion, that called the ſhop-tax received the ſtrongeſt oppoſition; and by the perſevering applications of thoſe who were particularly aggrieved, its repeal was at length obtained about three years after. Mr. Pitt opened a negociation with France for a more liberal commercial intercourſe between the two countries, and appointed mr. Eden, formerly a commiſſioner to the united ſtates, and ſince created lord Auckland, as envoy for that purpoſe. A treaty was concluded, and ratified by both houſes of parliament.

On the 24th of January 1786, the houſe met, and amongſt the various meaſures agitated, the plan for eſtabliſhing a ſinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the ſtate exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure by a ſum of 900,000. This meaſure was paſſed into a law, which created commiſſioners for carrying the purpoſes of this act into execution. Experience has diſcovered its futility.

We come now to the impeachment of Warren Haſtings, late governor general of Bengal. On the 17th of February, mr. Burke explained, in ſome degree, the mode of proceeding that he was deſirous to adopt in this buſineſs; and, in the courſe of the ſeſſion, he moved for a multitude of papers to ground and ſubſtantiate his charges upon. Theſe were at length produced, and mr. Haſtings was heard in his defence at the bar of the houſe of commons. The debates which aroſe on the ſubject terminated in reſolutions, that certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment againſt the late governor general of Bengal. This important buſineſs is ſtill undecided.

The trade carried on by England, and other European nations, upon the coaſt of Africa, for the purpoſe of purchaſing negro-ſlaves, does not appear till of late years to have been conſidered with general attention. The firſt public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a ſtop to that traffic, was by the quakers in America, who, ſoon after the eſtabliſhment of its independence, not only preſented a ſtrong and pathetic addreſs for this purpoſe to the ſeveral legiſlative aſſemblies, but actually, in many inſtances, emancipated the ſlaves in their poſſeſſion. The humane meaſures taken by the American legiſlatures, in conſequence of this application, are before the public. In Britain the ſame ſociety appears alſo to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, preſented a ſimilar petition to the parliament of that kingdom. The cauſe ſoon became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were publiſhed upon the ſubject; and petitions were preſented to the legiſlature againſt the trade from the two univerſities, and from ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

Miniſtry thought it proper to inſtitute an enquiry, before a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the repreſentations of both parties upon the ſubject. The firſt public notice that was taken of this affair was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, ſoon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to introduce the ſubject of the ſlave-trade. That gentleman being much indiſpoſed, mr Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following reſolution, "That this houſe will, early in the next ſeſſion of parliament, proceed to take into conſideration the circumſtances of the ſlave-trade,

complained of in the petitions preſented to the houſe, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimouſly carried. After this, on the 21ſt of May, ſir William Dolben moved the houſe for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the tranſportation of the natives of Africa to the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt Indies*. By the bill now propoſed, the number of ſlaves to be tranſported in any ſhip was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief, until ſome more permanent expedient could be deviſed by the legiſlature. Having paſſed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it alſo paſſed, after having received ſeveral amendments; ſome of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower houſe, a new bill was brought in, which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

In the autumn of 1788, George the third was attacked by a diſtemper, which reduced him to a ſtate of lunacy. A ſpecies of interregnum took place. The parliament having aſſembled, mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant throne for the prince of Wales. Both the nation and their repreſentatives were diſpoſed to have granted as a matter of choice, what they were determined to refuſe as a matter of right. A conteſt enſued, which was, by the ingenuity of mr. Pitt, protracted on various pretences during ſeveral months. In the mean time, when every previous circumſtance had been adjuſted, and the prince and his party were within a few days of attaining the object of their wiſhes, the recovery of the king, in February 1789, put an end to their hopes. The conduct of ſome of the members of oppoſition had been, upon this occaſion, remarkably illiberal, and that of mr. Edmund Burke, in particular, had been groſsly indecent. This behaviour, as imprudent as unprincipled, excited univerſal deteſtation againſt the party, and univerſal ſympathy for the ſituation of George the third, at the mercy of his perſonal and inveterate enemies, embattled under the ſtandard of filial ingratitude. The indignation entertained at this conſpiracy, the profligate character of many of the adherents of the prince of Wales, and pity for the king's misfortune, produced a remarkable change in the public opinion. George III. who, before this event, had been unpopular almoſt from the commencement of his reign, became afterwards as popular as any prince in Europe.

During the revolution that ſoon after took place in France, the Britiſh miniſtry at firſt obſerved a neutrality. The king of Sweden had raſhly engaged in a very unequal conteſt with the empreſs of Ruſſia, and it has been ſaid that he was betrayed into this meaſure by the promiſes of aid from Pruſſia, and from Britain. Mr. Pitt reſtrained Denmark from joining the court of Peterſburgh againſt him, and a peace was not long after concluded. An expenſive armament, however, was found or fancied to be neceſſary to ſuſtain the importance of Britain, when interpoſing between the Ruſſians and Turks; and this fleet had ſcarcely been diſmiſſed, when they were once more aſſembled on account of a quarrel with Spain. The object of diſpute related to an alleged right, on the part of Britain, to kill whales in the South Seas, and wild cats at Nootka Sound. It is at the firſt glance

* That there was a neceſſity for adopting this propoſition will moſt clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the courſe of the debate. It appeared that five feet ſix inches in length, and ſixteen inches in breadth, was the ſpace allowed on an average to each ſlave. The lower deck of the veſſels was entirely covered with bodies, and the ſpace between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which ſeldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform alſo covered with bodies. Five perſons in every hundred periſhed at the loweſt computation in a voyage of ſix weeks continuance, which, according to the moſt accurate eſtimates of human life, was ſeventeen times the uſual rate of mortality. It was, indeed, much more, becauſe, in the eſtimate of mortality, perſons of every age are included, while, in an African voyage, the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such is the ruinous nature of the trade in its moſt favourable circumſtances; but, in the voyage to the more diſtant parts of Africa, the mortality was ſtated to be twice as great; and conſequently, thirty-four perſons periſhed, at the loweſt eſtimation, for one that would have died in the courſe of nature.

evident, that neither party could poſſeſs any title of this kind ſuperior to the reſt of mankind. The Spaniards committed ſome acts of violence againſt the Engliſh adventurers at Nootka Sound. They propoſed a negociation, and that in the mean time neither people ſhould put themſelves to the unneceſſary expenſe of an armament. This plan was rejected by mr. Pitt. An immenſe fleet was manned with thirty thouſand ſailors, drawn from the commerce of the country. Four millions ſterling were ſquandered in providing for a war. At laſt a kind of convention was agreed to in very equivocal terms.

The ſequel of this buſineſs has been worthy of ſuch a commencement. When this ſheet was going to preſs, we received from Europe freſh accounts concerning the conduct of Spain. It appears that her commanders on the north weſt coaſt of North America have refuſed to make any conceſſions in conſequence of the convention; and an Engliſh governor, who had been ſent out to ſee its fulfilment, after ſtaying in that inhoſpitable region for about two years, has found it neceſſary to return home. The whole tranſaction is therefore to begin over again.

The revolution in France had excited uncommon attention and intereſt in the Britiſh iſlands. The celebrated author of the pamphlet entitled Common Senſe, illuſtrated and defended its principles in two pamphlets, entitled "Rights of man." The ſale of theſe pamphlets far exceeded whatever had been heard of in the Engliſh language. In the preface to the ſecond part, mr. Paine tells us, that at leaſt forty or fifty thouſand copies of the firſt had been ſold in Britain and Ireland. Cheap editions of both pamphlets were afterwards printed and ſold at a reduced price. Five piratical editions, if not a greater number, were printed in Scotland only. The circulation laſted for about eighteen months, when effectual meaſures were adopted by the government of England to put an end to it. In that time, at leaſt an hundred thouſand, but more probably an hundred and fifty thouſand copies of each of the two pamphlets were ſold. Political reformation became the ſole topic of diſcourſe in every company. Immenſe numbers of publications appeared on both ſides of the queſtion; but the diſciples of mr. Paine bore away the palm of popularity. Scotland had been long and juſtly regarded as more ſervilely devoted to the will of government, than any other part of the Britiſh dominions. Their recent proceedings have been marked with the ſerious but deciſive character of the nation. They aſſembled in numberleſs ſocieties all over the country, and though their publications breathed the ſpirit of loyalty, the diſguiſe was too tranſparent to conceal their ultimate object. Two conventions were held at Edinburgh in the courſe of laſt winter. In London, affairs were equally haſting to a criſis; above eighty thouſand people entered into combinations for a parliamentary reform, and "no church! no king!" was the common ſtile of thoſe meetings. The court took the alarm. Proclamations were iſſued againſt the printing of ſeditious writings. Some hundreds of proſecutions were entered into by the attorney general, againſt authors, printers, bookſellers, preſidents of reforming ſocieties, and others. Counter aſſociations were formed by the ariſtocracy, for the avowed purpoſe of haraſſing with proſecutions, all perſons who thought differently on this ſubject from themſelves. The parliament was abruptly ſummoned to meet; the fortifications of the tower of London, were put in immediate repair, and a variety of other expedients were employed to alarm the people. A farce of the ſame kind was acted at Edinburgh: the caſtle underwent additional improvements, and the gunpowder belonging to the merchants of the city was ſeized and depoſited in the caſtle. The ariſtocracy in both kingdoms made no ſcruple of declaring that nothing but a French war could divert the people at large from adopting French principles, and from reducing them to practice. Accordingly war has been declared, and we have in a former part of this work ſtated its extraordinary commencement. Every veſſel that arrives from Britain, brings over a

freſh catalogue of bankruptcies; while it is becoming every day more evident that the combined powers cannot make the ſmalleſt impreſſion on the territories of the republic. They have attempted to lay ſiege to Conde, a ſtrong town on the frontiers of French Flanders; and from the firſt to the tenth of May, it appears that the republicans attacked them on at leaſt three or four different days, with great bravery, and with ſome degree of ſucceſs.

The brave French general Dampierre expired of a wound received May 8th; but a ſucceſſion of hard fought battles of neceſſity forms a body of able officers, as well as of veteran ſoldiers to ſupply their places. In a word, the proſpect of the allies becomes every day darker: but of the riſe and progreſs of this war we muſt defer a regular account, till we reach the article France; as the preſent one has already, in ſpite of our utmoſt endeavours to condenſe it, extended to an uncommon length.

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has a diſtinction in language and manners, we have aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

Extent and situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	130	between	51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth	96		2.41 and 4.56 Weſt longitude.

Area in ſquare miles, 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch are the deſcendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles, that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a ſtrong affinity with the Celtic, or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being then bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country, than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which formerly belonged to Wales, but now form part of England. The country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See England.

Climate, soil, and rivers.] The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame as in the northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Allen.

Mountains.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous. Their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted the natives in making ſo long and ſo noble a ſtruggle againſt their Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman adverſaries.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. In these particulars, Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue; their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef; and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being stamped with three ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in, some years ago, about forty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are jealous of their liberties, and irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of tracing their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is, however, certain that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalessin, who lived about the year 450. Some of his works have appeared in an English translation, but they can bear no parallel with the tenderness and sublimity of the poems ascribed to Ossian, with whom we are naturally tempted to compare them. The Welch bard has perhaps been injured in the modern version. Poetical genius seems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthusiasm for independency, for which reason Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to their ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who, in other countries, commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not, however, to imagine that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the higher classes of the Welch speak the English language; though numbers of the lower understand the Welch only.

The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations, they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was formerly a discouragement to learning; but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge, have in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed to remove from place to place, for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vast expense, bibles, common prayer and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-school.

The established religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but some ancient families among them are still Roman Catholics. The principality contains great numbers of Protestant Dissenters.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN. Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wicklifism took shelter in Wales when it was persecuted in England. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was a Welchman; and Leland mentions several

learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The burying-place of Arthur and his queen was discovered by some lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was a Welchman; as was the lord keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York, in the time of king Charles I. The great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales ſupplied the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority, cited in Rowland's Mona Antiqua. We have an excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert, of Cherbury, a Welchman.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales contains no cities or towns remarkable for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey, and has a good harbour. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is fertile and pleaſant. The other towns of Wales, have nothing particular. Wales, in ancient times, was more populous than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts at a ſmall expenſe: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Many Roman altars, antiquities, and utenſils, have been diſcovered in Wales. Among the other artificial curioſities, is king Offa's dyke, which is ſaid to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-caſtle, in Glamorganſhire, is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhow it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Near the town of Flint are the remains of a large caſtle, in which Richard II. was confined for ſome time before his depoſition and murder. A variety of Roman antiquities have been found in this town, which is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman ſtation.

Among the natural curioſities of this country are the following. At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring near the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merionethſhire, is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, called St. Winifred's well. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, ſupported by pillars, and the roof is exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made,

is found to caſt out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, and varies but little in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains; but in conſequence of the latter is diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, was ſo full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is, by triangular meaſurement, 1240 yards of perpendicular height.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch in commerce and manufactures are not inferior to many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they ſend numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales, in general, carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being aboliſhed, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, we have already mentioned the land-tax; and the crown has a certain, though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver and lead-mines: but it is ſaid, that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by the three different tribes of Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people made ſuch courageous oppoſition to the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. The Saxons conquered Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many brave attempts to maintain their liberties againſt the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a pretence for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to Henry III. of England.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of his worthleſs ſon, Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an army at a great expenſe, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them

to submit to pay tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellin: but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was hanged, with the wonted barbarity of that atrocious tyrant. Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time probably, that he perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete the conquest, he sent his queen, in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has ever since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England became thenceforth the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

ISLE OF MAN.

SOME think that Man takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, of which Snafield is the highest, rising 1640 feet above the level of the sea, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The wealthier sort of inhabitants have good large horses, and a small kind which are swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought, as are the quarries of marble, slate and stone.

The isle of Man contains seventeen parishes and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castletown is the metropolis of the island; and the seat of government; Peele of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsay has likewise a considerable commerce on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds except the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these thirty years.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas, who have been already mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Britain, and Ireland. The kings

of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property, to the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I.; and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſovereignty over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family-honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhopric, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon ſir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. The cuſtoms and the iſland were purchaſed from the Athol family by the crown of England; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants alſo retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers; his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well maintained in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Gaelic, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The higher claſs live in ſtone houſes, covered with ſlate, and the lower in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities which they may have occaſion for from other countries. Before the ſouth promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, adorned with pure gold.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is oppoſite to the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles: it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length extends, from eaſt to weſt, twenty-three miles; its breadth, from north to ſouth, about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the ſouthern parts; the ſoil is various, and ſo great is its fertility, that more wheat grows here in one year, than can be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight. A range of hills, which afford fine paſture

for ſheep, extends from eaſt to weſt, through the middle of the iſland. The interior parts, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral, but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle. Of theſe beauties the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of the ſituation of their houſes, as in their other improvements. Domeſtic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly ſupply themſelves from this iſland.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the garden of England; it has ſome very beautiful country ſeats; and it is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.

The iſland is divided into thirty pariſhes: and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops quartered there. Moſt of the farm houſes are built with ſtone, and the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each a little garden.

The town of Newport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of which it may be conſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and, being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal ſtreets of Newport extend from eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all of which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved.

Cariſbrooke caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it. There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and block-houſes were built in different parts of the coaſts of England.

The ISLANDS of JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, SARK, LUNDY, &c.

JERSEY, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, are ſituated in the Engliſh channel, and are ſubject to England. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britanny. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame iſland and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, eighteen miles weſt of Normandy, and eighty four miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible, through lofty cliffs; the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine: and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants are in number about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains about 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recognize him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words; yet French is moſt generally the language of the pulpit and the bar. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity; but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England; but the civil adminiſtration reſts with the bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which forms a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are about eight miniſters. Though this is naturally a finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable, being poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. It abounds in cyder: the inhabitants ſpeak French.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs. It is healthy, and is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending on Guernſey: the inhabitants are about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt-mentioned iſlands together, are thought to be about 20,000.

SCILLY ISLANDS AND ROCKS, anciently called the SILURES, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End, in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part, and to which they are ſuppoſed to have been formerly joined, but ſeparated from it, and from each other, by ſome violent eruption of the ſea, which is here between 40 and 60 fathoms deep.

LUNDY ISLAND, though 50 miles from land off the north-weſt courſe from Devonſhire, has ſprings of freſh water. It is five miles long, and two broad, but ſo encompaſſed with inacceſſible rocks, that it has but one entrance to it, ſo narrow that two men can ſcarcely go abreaſt: it had once a fort and chapel.

HOLY ISLAND is ſituated ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Berwick upon Tweed; it was anciently a biſhop's ſee, and had 22 biſhops ſucceſſively. It has plenty of fiſh and fowl, but the air and ſoil are bad. It is three miles in compaſs, and has a town, a church, and caſtle, under which is a commodious harbour.

IRELAND.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth climate, where the longeſt day is 16 1-2 hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longeſt day is 17 1-2 hours.

The extent or ſuperficial contents of this kingdom, is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the Eaſt part of Down to the Weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles; and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which make 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, is reckoned 45 miles; but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland, is little more than 20 miles, and the paſſage from Holyhead in North Wales, to Dublin, about 52 miles.

Divisions.] The modern diviſion of this iſland is into four provinces, viz. 1. Leinſter; 2. Ulſter; 3. Munſter; 4. Connaught; and theſe again into 32 counties, 267 baronies, and 2293 pariſhes. The following table will ſhow the principal town and the contents, in acres, of each county:

Provinces.	Counties.	Acres.	Chief towns.
LEINSTER, 12 counties,	Carlow,	116,900	Carlow,
	Dublin,	123,784	Dublin,
	Kildare,	228,590	Naas and Athy,
	Kilkenny,	287,650	Kilkenny,
	King's County,	257,510	Philipſtown,
	Longford,	134,700	Longford,
	Louth,	111,180	Drogheda and Dundalk,
	Meath,	326,480	Trim,
	Queen's County,	238,415	Maryborough,
	Weſtmeath,	249,943	Mullingar,
	Wexford,	315,396	Wexford,
	Wicklow,	252,410	Wicklow.
		2,642,958	
ULSTER, 9 counties,	Antrim,	383,020	Carrickfergus,
	Armagh,	170,620	Armagh,
	Cavan,	274,800	Cavan,
	Down,	344,658	Downpatrick,
	Donnegal,	630,157	Lifford,
	Fermanagh,	224,807	Inniſkillen,
	Londonderry,	251,510	Derry,
	Monaghan,	170,090	Monaghan,
	Tyrone,	387,175	Omagh.
		2,836,837	
MUNSTER, 6 counties,	Clare,	428,187	Ennis,
	Cork,	991,010	Gork,
	Kerry,	636,905	Tralee,
	Limerick,	375,320	Limerick,
	Tipperary,	599,500	Clonmel,
	Waterford,	259,010	Waterford.
		3,289,932	

CONNAUGHT, 5 counties,	Galway, - -	775,525	Galway,
	Leitrim, - -	206,830	Carrick on Shannon,
	Mayo, - - -	724,640	Caſtlebar,
	Roſcommon -	324,370	Roſcommon,
	Sligo, - - -	241,550	Sligo.
		2,272,915	

In all Ireland, 11,042,642

NAME.] The Iriſh antiquarians generally agree, that the ancient name of Ireland was *Scotia*, and that, at different periods, it has alſo been called *Ierne*, *Juverna*, *Hibernia*, &c. Much critical learning, and national partiality, appeared for ſeveral ages between the writers of Ireland and Scotland on this ſubject, and on the ſources from whence their reſpective countries were peopled; but the concurring ſentiments and teſtimony of the moſt reſpectable authors have decided the controverſy in favour of Ireland on the former point; and the opinion of Hume, in confirmation of other authorities, nearly puts an end to the diſcuſſion of the latter, by a declaration in ſupport of the pretenſions of Ireland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The climate of Ireland, though it does not generally differ much from that of England, is, however, found to poſſeſs an atmoſphere more moiſt, with more frequent returns of rain. This has been accounted for by obſerving, that "the weſterly winds, ſo favourable to other regions, and ſo benign even in Ireland, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on the weſt ſide of the iſland, to break their force, and proving in general too powerful for the counteraction of the ſhifting winds from the eaſtern and African continents, they waft thither the vapours of an immenſe ocean. The ſky is thereby much obſcured; and, from the nature of reſt and condenſation, theſe vapours deſcend in ſuch conſtant rains, as in ſome ſeaſons threaten deſtruction to the fruits of the earth. This unavoidable evil from natural cauſes, is aggravated by the increaſe of it from others, which are abſolutely either moral or political. The hand of induſtry hath been long idle in a country where almoſt every advantage muſt be obtained from its labour, and where diſcouragements on the labourer muſt neceſſarily produce a ſtate of languor, equally hurtful to the proſperity and manners of every nation. Ever ſince the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of ſo many ages ſubſiding on the lower grounds, have converted moſt of the extenſive plains of Ireland into moſſy moraſſes, and near a tenth part of that beautiful iſle is become a repoſitory for ſtagnated waters, which, in the courſe of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations*." But, in many reſpects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England, the ſummers being cooler and the winters leſs ſevere. The piercing froſts, the deep ſnows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are ſo frequently obſerved in the latter kingdom, are never experienced there.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] Perhaps no country of the ſame extent is more bountifully watered by the fineſt rivers and lakes, or more perfectly indented by the nobleſt harbours; it poſſeſſes, in an eminent degree, thoſe great requiſites for agriculture, manufactures, and the moſt extended commerce. The rivers, beſides abounding with an infinite variety of fiſh, communicate uncommon fertility to the lands which they beautify, and afford a multitude of the beſt ſituations for the machinery of manufactures. The harbours are not only numerous, but, in ſome inſtances, capable of containing, in the utmoſt ſecurity,

* O'Connor's Diſſertations.

the greateſt fleets. They, however, have been long ſolitary and unfrequented, as the illiberal ſpirit of trading jealouſy, which Britain has unfeelingly and inceſſantly exerciſed, has rendered all theſe diſtinguiſhed bleſſings of providence of little value, except to the adventurous mariner, whom diſtreſs or tempeſt has driven to experience their ſeaſonable protection.

The principal rivers are the Shannon, Barrow, Nore, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffey, and Boyne. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head.

The Lee riſes in the county of Cork, below which city it falls into the ſea, after an eaſterly courſe of about twenty-ſix miles. The Liffey riſes in the county of Wicklow; and, purſuing a courſe of ſome length, falls into the Iriſh ſea below Dublin. The Boyne riſes near Edenderry in King's County, and falls into the ſea at Drogheda. The Barrow, Nore and Suir, have their ſources in different branches of the mountain, Slieu-Bloom, and fall, after having united their ſtreams, into the ſea, at Hook-point, at the mouth of the haven of Waterford. The Bann, famous for a pearl and ſalmon fiſhery, riſes in the county of Down, and falls into Lough Neagh, in the county of Armagh.

It would be difficult to enumerate the many bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which indent every part of the coaſt, and, from their various ſituations in reſpect to other countries, render this, above all others, the moſt admirably accommodated for univerſal commerce; the following are the principal: Waterford, Carlingford, and Strangford-havens, the bay of Carrickfergus, on the eaſt; Lough-Foyle and Lough-Swilly, Ship-haven, Killybegs-harbour, Donegal-haven, on the north; Galway-haven, the mouth of the Shannon, Sherwick, or St. Mary-wick-haven, Dingle-bay, on the weſt; Kenmare-bay or river, Bantry, Dunmanus, and Baltimore-bays, Caſtle-haven, Glendore-haven, Kinſale and Cork-havens, on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt. Theſe are the principal unbarred havens. There are likewiſe a great many barred havens, ſome of which have been much improved at public expenſe, particularly that of Dublin.

The lakes or loughs of Ireland have ſo many properties, in ſome reſpects peculiar to themſelves, that their ſingularities, their extent, or their beauties, have long engaged the attention of the traveller and the poet; and have attracted the curioſity and excited the admiration of people of taſte from every part of Europe. The moſt remarkable are the Lakes of Killarney, Lough-Erne and Lough-Neagh.

The lakes of Killarney are three in number. The northern or lower lake is ſix miles in length, and from three to four in breadth. The town of Killarney is ſituated on its northern ſhore. The ſouthern is compoſed of lofty mountains, covered with fine timber. From the centre of the lake, the view is aſtoniſhingly ſublime, preſenting to the eye an extent of foreſt ſix miles in length, and from half a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, ſpreading on the ſides of two mountains, whoſe naked ſummits, riſing above the whole, form a ſtriking contraſt to the verdure of the lower region. O'Sullivan's caſcade falls into the lake, from a height of more than ſeventy feet. The iſle of Inisfallen lies oppoſite to this caſcade, containing eighteen acres, and, for that extent of land, can exhibit more picturesque elegance, than perhaps any other ſpot in Europe.

The promontory of Mucruſs, divides the upper from the lower lake. The upper lake is four miles in length, and from two to three in breadth. The two lakes are connected by a narrow winding paſſage round the promontory. In its ſtreight is the famous rock called the Eagle's Neſt, from the number of thoſe birds, which build their neſts in that place. It riſes abruptly from the water to an aſtoniſhing height,

The baſe for ſome diſtance up is covered with trees; but the part, which appears above the wood, is covered with immenſe blocks of marble, heaped one over the other almoſt perpendicularly. This rock produces thoſe wonderful echoes, which have ſo often excited the admiration of travellers, when viſiting the lakes of Killarney. A French horn, ſounded there, raiſes a concert ſuperior to an hundred inſtruments, and the report of a ſingle cannon is anſwered by a ſucceſſion of peals reſembling the loudeſt thunder, which ſeems to roll over the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has obligingly placed ſome cannon, in the moſt proper places for the amuſement of travellers.

The upper lake is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, in ſome places bare and wild, even to rudeneſs; in others, covered with woods hanging down to the water. From the mountains deſcend a number of ſtreams, ſome of them forming beautiful caſcades, which, in a clear day, glitter to the ſun beams, and give a high degree of animation to the whole ſcenery. The third of theſe lakes is inferior in point of beauty to the other two; yet, by a variety of ſtriking views, it commands the attention of every traveller.

Lough Erne is the largeſt lake in Ireland, being forty miles in length, and in ſome places fifteen in breadth. Near the middle it contracts itſelf for a conſiderable way, and in the centre of this contracted body of water, there is an iſland, on which ſtands the town of Inniſkillen; the communication with the main land being preſerved by two bridges.

Lough Neagh is of an oval figure, but conſiderably indented on its ſides. It is near twenty miles in length, and about ten in breadth; it abounds with a variety of fiſh, and in particular, the pullein, or freſh water herring, admired for the uncommon delicacy of its flavour. This lake is not ſo remarkable for picturesque beauties, as Lough Erne, and the lakes of Killarney; but the water, or the ſhore around it is poſſeſſed with a petrifying quality. Frequent petrifactions of wood are found in the neighbourhood.

MOUNTAINS, CAVES, AND GLENS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *bienn*, or binn, ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland; but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Part of theſe mountains contain in their bowels beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

About two miles from the town of Kilkenny, in the neighbourhood of the park-houſe of Dunmore, is a number of caves, which are ſuppoſed to rival any in the world, except that of Antiparos. A deſcription of them has been written on the ſpot by a gentleman, whoſe account we ſhall here abridge. After a difficult deſcent of about an hundred feet, you gain an entrance into this ſubterranean world. The appearance of the firſt cavern is uncommonly awful, and ſtrikes you with the idea of a grand Gothic ſtructure in ruins. The ſides are compoſed of ragged rocks in ſome parts covered with moſs, and in others curiouſly froſted. The circumference of this cave is not leſs than two hundred feet, and its height is about fifty.

On entering this place, you are ſtunned with the noiſe of a multitude of wild pigeons. Hence there is an aſcending paſſage to the left, by which you enter a large cavity. Here a thouſand vaſt rocks rudely piled on each other, compoſe the ſides, which bend in, while a multitude of a leſſer ſize hang from the roof. The place is totally dark; and the paſſage acroſs the rocks at the bottom dangerous to the traveller. This cavern leads to another more curious than the reſt. The floor is covered with a cryſtalline ſubſtance, and the roof with inverted pyramids of the ſame materials. Here are three congelations of particular beauty, which, by the help of a ſtrong imagination, may be taken for an organ, a croſs, and an altar. When you leave this apartment, you return to the firſt cavern, at the diſtance of a quarter of a mile. Several other paſſages branch off, by which you may proceed, till the noiſe of a ſubterranean river ſtrikes your ear. No adventurer has yet attempted to approach it.

Amongſt the numerous glens in Ireland, diſtinguiſhed for beauty, are two in the county of Wicklow. The Glen of the Downs is a paſs between two vaſt ridges of mountains, covered with wood, which have a noble effect. The vale is no wider than to admit the road, a ſmall rivulet running almoſt by its ſide; the ſcenery is of a moſt magnificent nature.

The Dargle is a narrow vale formed by the ſides of two oppoſite mountains; the depth is immenſe, and the bottom thickly ſpread with oak. The channel of the river covers the whole ſpace between the two mountains, and tumbles from rock to rock. The extent of wood that hangs to the eye in every direction, is great, and the depth of the glen immenſe, which, with the roar of the water, forms a ſcene truly intereſting. In leſs than a quarter of a mile, the road, paſſing through the wood, leads to another point of view, to the right; it is the crown of a vaſt projecting rock, from which you look down a precipice abſolutely perpendicular, and many hundred feet deep, upon the torrent. To deſcribe this glen with the minuteneſs which it deſerves, would far exceed our limits: theſe ſlight ſketches may give ſome idea of the pictureſque beauty of the whole.

FORESTS OR WOODS.] Ireland, like moſt other countries, was originally covered with wood, which preſented an aſylum to the natives, from the ferocity of their Engliſh invaders. Hence it became an object with the latter, to deſtroy the foreſts as ſoon as poſſible. This inauſpicious undertaking has been attended with the moſt unfortunate ſucceſs, and woods, which might have ſupplied an inexhauſtible ſource of national wealth, have been totally extirpated. The patronage of the Dublin Society, and the exertions of numerous individuals, offer the diſtant proſpect of ſome kind of relief to this great calamity.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY LAND AND SEA.] Theſe are in general ſimilar to thoſe of Britain. The unimproved ſtate of Ireland for ages prevented the introduction and cultivation of the numerous tribes of the vegetable kingdom; but peace and ſettlement have now diffuſed theſe, as well as other bleſſings, through the nation. The wolf-dogs, once ſo uſeful and celebrated, were perhaps peculiar to Ireland; but that ſpecies is now nearly extinct. Although the coaſts of the neighbouring iſlands may be furniſhed with the ſame varieties of fiſh, yet thoſe of Ireland have them in much greater abundance, and of a larger and more excellent quality.

METALS, MINERALS, AND MEDICINAL WATERS.] The mines of Ireland, until the deſtruction of the woods, were worked to a very great extent. At preſent, although abundance of the various ſpecies of iron, lead, ſilver, and copper ores are to be found in every direction through the kingdom, yet the want of capital, or ſkill, or enterprize, is ſuch, that few are worked to any important extent or profit, except the great copper-mines in the county of Wicklow.

In ſeveral counties are noble quarries of the fineſt marble; thoſe of Kerry are of

various colours, green, red, yellow, and white; and thoſe of Kilkenny, black and white; both of which take the moſt elegant poliſh, and are calculated for all the purpoſes of building or ornament.

Many parts of the kingdom abound with free ſtone, ſome of a bright ſparkling colour, others of a gray or aſh colour, and ſome approaching to a blue.—Thoſe of Ardbrachan, Garrycorris, and the mountains of Wicklow and Dublin, are particularly admired, and much uſed in public buildings.

Various ſpecies of coal, and in the greateſt abundance, are to be found in different parts of the kingdom. The pits of Kilkenny yield a coal poſſeſſing many peculiar properties; it is very hard, burns freely, emits little or no ſmoke, is of a bright black, and is found to be admirably adapted for malting, and various purpoſes of manufacture.

There are great number of mineral ſprings in this kingdom, of various claſſes, recommended for medicinal purpoſes: of theſe, the moſt generally reſorted to, from their experienced good effects, are the waters of Swanlinbar and Drumaſnave, in the north-weſt quarter, and of Lucan, ſix miles from the capital. It appears neceſſary to mention, under this head, that there are ſeveral petrifying lakes and ſprings in this iſland, of which Lough Neagh, already deſcribed, in Ulſter, is the moſt remarkable.

Antiquities.] Some of the moſt ſingular monuments of antiquity in this country, are the round towers. Fifty-one remain diſperſed in different parts of the iſland. Their original uſe is unknown; but they are generally ſituated in the neighbourhood of the ruins of abbies or monaſteries, which affords a preſumption that they were erected for religious purpoſes.

Of the natural curioſities of Ireland, none has excited ſuch attention as the Giant's Cauſeway. This is a mole or quay formed by the hand of nature, projecting from the baſe of a ſteep promontory, ſome hundred feet into the ſea. It is formed of perpendicular pillars of baſaltes, which ſtand in contact with each other, exhibiting an appearance not much unlike a ſolid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular priſms of various denominations, from four to eight ſides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others together. On a minute inſpection, each pillar is found to be ſeparable into ſeveral joints, whoſe articulation is neat beyond expreſſion. The ſides of each column are unequal among themſelves; but the contiguous ſides of adjoining columns are always of equal dimenſions, ſo as to touch in all their parts. Though the angles are of various magnitudes, yet the ſum of the contiguous angles of adjoining pillars, always makes up four right ones. Hence there are no void ſpaces among the baſaltes, the ſurface of the cauſeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of polygon ſtone.

Population.] Sir William Petty, in his Political Anatomy, informs us, that in the year 1641, Ireland contained one million four hundred and ſixty-ſix thouſand inhabitants; but that in 1652, its population extended only to eight hundred and fifty thouſand. So great a havoc, as the loſs of almoſt one half of its population in eleven years, has hardly ever happened to any people, unleſs perhaps the Jews, or the ſubjects of the Britiſh Eaſt India company. It is certain that Cromwell and Ireton made large ſtrides towards extirpating the whole people, and were reſtrained, not by motives of humanity, but by the difficulties of the undertaking. In 1672, the author above quoted raiſes the population to eleven hundred thouſand.

In ſpite of the worſt ſpecies of bad government, the nation has continued to multiply. In 1786, the collectors of hearth money having laid their accounts before the houſe of commons, it appeared that Ireland contained at that time four hundred and ſeventy-four thouſand two hundred and thirty-four houſes. Since that period, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the number has increaſed, as the progreſs of ſociety has not, till laſt Spring, been interrupted by the deſtructive waſte of war. Many houſes may likewiſe have been omitted by the ſurveyors; and from this double ſource of

addition to the former eſtimate, it is probable, that there are not leſs than five hundred thouſand houſes in the whole iſland.

From a great variety of calculations it ſeems to be a moderate ſtatement, that the houſes in town and country average eight perſons each. By this rate the total population of Ireland amounts to four millions of people, of whom three-fourths are Roman catholics.

LANGUAGE.] The dialects peculiar to the Welch, the Scots Highlanders, and the old Iriſh, are all collateral branches from the ſtock of the Celtic language, ſpoken in Gaul, in the days of Julius Cæſar, and moſt probably well known in other parts of the continent of Europe. In mr. Macpherſon's Introduction to the hiſtory of Britain and Ireland, he has printed a copious liſt of Latin and modern Caelic words, by which it appears, that the language which has been employed by the Scots Highlanders, is intimately connected with the Latin; and conſequently, the Iriſh and Welch dialects have the ſame relation to that tongue. We have ſeen a manuſcript of the very learned and ingenious colonel Vallancey, in which he affirms that this relation or reſemblance may be traced in, he believes, every language of the old continent, not excepting the moſt iſolated of them all, that of China. There is the greateſt probability, that Ireland was viſited, at a very remote period, by the Phœnicians, who are ſuppoſed to have introduced the uſe of the alphabet. There is not, in the whole range of literature, any department more curious, than a variety of tracts inſerted in the Archæologia, publiſhed at London by a ſociety of gentlemen, reſpecting the monuments of antiquity which have been diſcovered and deſcribed in Ireland by governor Pownal and others; and of theſe, the inſcriptions on ſome of the tombſtones of old warriors, which can ſtill be read by antiquaries, are not the leaſt extraordinary.

As to the language itſelf, there is no doubt, that it muſt, at a remote period, have been one of the moſt ſimple, beautiful, and emphatic in the world. We have been intimately acquainted with ſeveral gentlemen, who had acquired, in their infancy, the Scots Gaelic, and all agreed in ſpeaking of it with rapture.

AGRICULTURE.] The agriculture of Ireland has been extended and improved within the laſt thirty years; but it is ſtill in a very backward ſtate. A ſufficient quantity of corn is now raiſed for home conſumption, and even to ſupport a conſiderable exportation; yet the mode of cultivation is ſtill very defective, as the Iriſh have not hitherto introduced thoſe improved ſyſtems of huſbandry, which have long been purſued in Britain, and in ſome other parts of Europe.

The landlords neglect to inſtruct or encourage their tenantry. The country gentlemen who never reſide on their eſtates, are very numerous, and are for the moſt part utterly ignorant or indifferent as to the ſtate of agriculture. The ſoil is conſidered by too many landlords, merely in the light of a ſpecies of property, from which as much rent is to be drained as poſſible, and the ſhorteſt and moſt productive methods are regarded as the beſt. In Turkey, the taxes or contributions are raiſed exactly on the ſame principles; and there, as in Ireland, and indeed in every other country, where ſuch maxims are adopted, deſolation and diſtreſs ſtalk hand in hand over the ruins of civilized life. The conſequence is, that immenſe numbers of the Iriſh peaſantry are poor, ignorant, and wretched. Some regulations have of late years been adopted, which are ſuppoſed to promote the intereſts of agriculture. When wheat ſinks in price below twenty-ſeven ſhillings per barrel, there is a bounty on exportation, of three ſhillings and four pence, per barrel, and no foreign grain is ſuffered to be imported. By this regulation, the farmer is encouraged to raiſe wheat, from the certainty that he will have an open market abroad, and no rival at home: on the other hand, when the price riſes to thirty ſhillings, the exportation is prohibited, leſt the price of grain ſhould become too high, and the ports are thrown open for the importation of foreign wheat and other kinds of grain.

Some advantages have been derived from this plan; and the Dublin Society have propoſed numerous and liberal premiums, for the improvement of agriculture. But all theſe laws and premiums will ſerve as little purpoſe as the ſame endeavours did under the old monarchy of France. The execrable form of government blaſted every bloſſom of rural induſtry. In Ireland, the ſame cauſes have produced the ſame effects.

Fisheries.] Ireland has advantages in the ſeveral fiſheries, at leaſt equal to thoſe of any other country in Europe, particularly in her ſituation, and in her numerous creeks and harbours. Her ſhores are ſtored with all the varieties of fiſh, her fiſhermen a hardy and adventurous race, and the opportunity of curing on contiguous ſhores, gives them important advantages. The parliamentary bounties are on a liberal ſcale; are in general judicious, and, under regulations by which they may be obtained with eaſe and expedition by the fair claimants, will probably operate to the eſtabliſhment of fiſheries, which, inſtead of being a minor object, will become, perhaps, the firſt in the trade of Ireland.

Theſe advantages muſt be greatly aided, when large private capitals are employed, and when the proper markets, the habits of trade, and correſpondences ſhall be better known and eſtabliſhed.

The north-weſt and weſtern coaſts of the kingdom, abounding in a ſuperior degree with herrings, have long attracted the national attention and legiſlative encouragement.

Learning and learned men.] Ireland, for more than a century paſt, has been fertile of learned and ingenious authors. The name of archbiſhop Uſher is familiar to every reader. Dr. Berkeley is an entertaining though deſultory writer. Sir Hans Sloane was no leſs remarkable for his muſeum than his abilities. Dr. Hutcheſon is the principal ethic philoſopher of Ireland. Dr. Leland is known to the world as author of the "Life of Philip of Macedon;" a tranſlation of Demoſthenes; and a hiſtory of Ireland. Dr. Crawford's hiſtory of Ireland is diſtinguiſhed by liberality of ſentiment and fidelity of reſearch. O'Halloran's ancient hiſtory of Ireland deſerves a peruſal; but dr. Curry appears with advantage ſuperior to that of any other writer on this ſubject. As a hiſtorian, he is accurate, intelligent, and inſtructive. He has vindicated, in a way which admits of no anſwer, the national character of Ireland, from innumerable ſlanders, the offspring of ignorance, malevolence, and fanaticiſm. David Hume adopted and embelliſhed the croud of falſehoods, which had been invented reſpecting the maſſacre of the proteſtants in Ireland, in the reign of Charles the firſt. He was politely requeſted to examine the evidences on this melancholy ſubject, and either to vindicate or retract his aſſertions. He returned an evaſive anſwer; and did neither. This mean inſtance of ſelf-conceit reflects no great honour on his memory; and to thoſe who peruſe his hiſtory of England, his refuſal to correct its errors on this head, makes an acquaintance with dr. Curry's work neceſſary. Of elegant poets, Ireland can boaſt an ample ſhare. Roſcommon, Parnell, Congreve, and Cunningham, author of ſome exquiſite paſtoral pieces, are univerſally admired. Mr. Ogle, who modernized a part of Chaucer's tales, deſerves to be better known than he has hitherto been, in the literary world. The tale of Griſſelda is one of the moſt pathetic in any language. It is indeed by far ſuperior to any other in the collection: the verſion of this affecting narrative by mr. Ogle is, in correctneſs, elegance, and ſublimity of verſification, nothing inferior to the beſt of Dryden's performances inſerted in the ſame publication.

Dr. Goldſmith is equally pleaſing in verſe and proſe. His Traveller is extremely beautiful, but above all his Deſerted Village commands the unlimited admiration of every perſon poſſeſſing the ſlighteſt degree of ſenſibility. Wood publiſhed Ruins of Palmyra and Balbec, and an eſſay on the genius and writings of Homer; two per-

formances which deſerve a place in the beſt libraries. Sterne, who was born in the barracks of Dublin, is another writer whoſe volumes are in every hand; and had he poſſeſſed the fortitude to expunge the jargon and obſcenity which deform his pages, he might have aſpired to unſullied, as well as to unrivalled fame. It would far exceed the bounds of this publication to enter into a critical review of a great number of modern authors, natives of Ireland, and whoſe works though not in the firſt rank of genius, are yet for the moſt part reſpectable and uſeful. Lord Orrery, ſir Richard Steele, mr. Webb, author of an inquiry into the beauties of painting; Johnſon, author of Chryſal; Brooke, author of the Fool of Quality, a well known novel; dr. Sheridan, author of the Pronouncing Dictionary; dr. Dunkin, and mr. Southerne, the tragic poet, come all under this deſcription. Farquahr will be long remembered by the patrons of comic genius; and indeed, for the laſt twenty years, the majority of the dramatic writers, who have obtained any kind of popularity on the Engliſh ſtage, have been indebted for their birth to Ireland.

"When Swift is conſidered as an author," ſays dr. Johnſon, "it is juſt to eſtimate his powers by their effects. In the reign of Queen Anne, he turned the ſtream of popularity againſt the Whigs, and muſt be confeſſed to have dictated for a time the political opinions of the Engliſh nation. In the ſucceeding reign, he delivered Ireland from plunder and oppreſſion; and ſhowed, that wit, confederated with truth, had ſuch force as authority was unable to reſiſt. He ſaid truly of himſelf, that Ireland *was his debtor*. It was from the time that he began to patroniſe the Iriſh, that they may date their riches and proſperity. He taught them firſt to know their own intereſt, their weight, and their ſtrength, and gave them ſpirit to aſſert that equality with their fellow ſubjects, to which they have ever ſince been making vigorous advances; and to claim thoſe rights which they have at laſt eſtabliſhed. Nor can they be charged with ingratitude to their benefactor; for they reverenced him as a guardian, and obeyed him as a dictator.

"In his works is found an equable tenor of eaſy language, which rather trickles than flows. His delight was in ſimplicity. That he had in his works no metaphor, as has been ſaid, is not true; but his few metaphors ſeem to be received rather by neceſſity than choice. He ſtudied purity; and though perhaps all his ſtrictures are not exact, yet it is not often that ſoleciſms can be found."

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is called Trinity college, at Dublin. It was founded in the year 1591, in the reign of Elizabeth; but its original conſtitution being found imperfect, it received in 1637, a new charter. The government of the college was placed in the provoſt, and major part of the ſenior fellows. The whole number of fellows was ſixteen, viz. ſeven ſenior, and nine junior. The number of ſcholars was augmented to ſeventy. The preſent number of fellowſhips is twenty-two, ſeven ſenior, and fifteen junior. The emoluments of a ſenior fellowſhip are ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed ſix hundred pounds yearly. Beſides the fellowſhips, there are on the foundation five royal profeſſorſhips, divinity, common law, civil law, phyſic, and Greek. The ſalary of the divinity profeſſor is five hundred pounds per annum; that of the law three hundred and ſixty pounds. The other royal profeſſors have one hundred pounds per annum each. There are, beſides, profeſſors of the mathematics, Oriental tongues, modern languages, oratory, hiſtory, natural philoſophy, of the theory and practice of phyſic, of ſurgery and midwifery, and of pharmacy and the Materia Medica.

The univerſity itſelf, is, perhaps, one of the nobleſt edifices of the kind in Europe. It extends in front above three hundred feet, and in depth ſix hundred; and is divided nearly into equal ſquares. The principal front, oppoſite College Green, which was erected in 1759, is in the Corinthian order, and built of mountain ſtone, as are all the buildings in the firſt ſquare, the eaſt ſide of which

is intended to be ornamented with an elegant ſteeple and ſpire an hundred and fifty feet high.

The library is very ſupurb; a great part of the books were collected by archbiſhop Uſher. In the muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are executed upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt the whole life of a French artiſt.

The ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY of ſcience, polite literature, and antiquities, was incorporated by letters patent in 1786, under the patronage of the king, and is compoſed of ſome of the moſt learned and ingenious men in the kingdom. They have publiſhed two volumes of their tranſactions, which conſiſt of ſeveral curious and valuable papers on various ſubjects, preſented by different members; which have been received by the literary world with applauſe. This inſtitution forms an era in the hiſtory of Iriſh literature, and will probably be productive of auſpicious conſequences, in the promotion of ſcience and general erudition.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The chief work of this kind, hitherto undertaken in Ireland, is the grand canal. It was begun in the year 1756, and has been chiefly executed under the inſpection of mr. Richard Evans. No great progreſs was made for ſeveral years. In 1772, a company of undertakers was incorporated by act of parliament; and in 1786, the communication was completed from Dublin to Monaſtereven, comprehending a courſe of thirty-one miles and a half. At Monaſtereven it falls into the river Barrow. It is navigated by boats of thirty to forty tons burden, and is ſupplied with water from numerous rivers and ſtreams. There are twenty-ſix locks on this navigation, ſix double, and twenty ſingle, in which the falls vary from four feet three inches to nineteen feet ſeven inches. The ſummit level is only two hundred and two feet four inches above the harbour of James's ſtreet, eighty-two feet nine inches above the river Barrow, at Monaſtereven, and two hundred and ſixty-five feet above the tide, in the Liffey, at Dublin.

The completion of this canal has communicated the moſt eſſential advantages to the country through which it paſſes, and its vicinity. Large tracts of barren land and bog have been reduced to a ſtate of cultivation, as the canal increaſes the value of the ground in its neighbourhood, by affording an eaſy and expeditious conveyance to the metropolis of flour, corn, coal, turf, &c. for which it tranſports in return, manufactures and articles of conſumption of infinite variety.

Several other works of this nature are at preſent executing in Ireland; and there is hardly a country in the world better adapted for improvements with reſpect to inland navigation, or which would reap more ſubſtantial advantages from it. For example, immenſe quantities of coal are annually imported from Whitehaven and other towns in the north of England, to Dublin. In the ſpring of 1793, between forty and fifty veſſels entered the harbour of Dublin, freighted with coals only, in the courſe of leſs than a week. It is commonly believed that abundance of coal may be found within about fifty miles of Dublin, which cannot be conveyed to the metropolis, at the requiſite degree of cheapneſs, for want of water-carriage. The royal canal, a work which has made ſome progreſs, will, it is ſuppoſed, complete this navigation, and thereby ſave prodigious ſums, which are annually tranſmitted to England.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] Notwithſtanding the baleful effects of various political cauſes; though luxury enervates; though corruption diſſolves and effaces; though extreme miſery diſtorts and deforms; and though a revenue is made to depend, in Ireland, on the conſumption of ardent ſpirits, which directly tend to blaſt the vigour of mind and body; ſtill are the great features, which have at all times characterized Iriſhmen, plainly diſcernible by the attentive and impartial obſerver.

The moiſture, the temperature of the climate, the genial breezes of the weſt, are here very favourable to animal as well as vegetable growth. The Iriſh are inferior

to no nation in bodily ſtrength and beauty; they are perhaps ſuperior to any in pliability and agility of limbs.

Always inclined to manly and martial exerciſes, they readily confront any undertaking; their bodies are fitted to any climate, or to any difficulty; and from the ſame ſource, might perhaps be derived that ſpirit of heroiſm, which has characterized them.

What peculiarly diſtinguiſhes the Iriſh character, is, a comprehenſion of qualities which are ſeldom found compatible; ſudden ardour—unabating perſeverance; univerſal aptitude—firm adherence; impatience of injury—a long remembrance of it; ſtrength of reſolution—tenderneſs of affection. Theſe outlines of the Iriſh character may be filled by the full-grown lineaments, which the writers of different ages, and of different countries, have affixed to it. The Iriſh have been repreſented, ſtrongly actuated by a thirſt of glory, prodigal of life, impetuous, vindictive, generous, hoſpitable, curious, credulous, alive to the charms of muſic, conſtant in love or hatred.

Qualities ſo powerful, ſo various, and ſo oppoſite, if properly attempered, would exhibit human nature in its higheſt perfection; but when diſcompoſed, ſometimes by too much internal energy, and often by external, adventitious circumſtances; they have invariably produced a ſpirit of diſcord, which has uniformly led this unhappy people to miſery and ruin. This ſpirit, embittered by a numerous train of evils, has here deformed the general view of nature; ſo that we muſt deſcend from public to private life; from the ſtateſman to the citizen; or, on the other ſide, ariſe from the vaſſal to the independent man, in order to find thoſe glowing tints which ſtrongly mark the manners of the people. In ſome ſequeſtered ſpot, untainted by luxury, undiſturbed by low ambition, and not diſtracted by the agitating hand of oppreſſion, the Iriſh are hoſpitable in an extreme. The ſtranger among them forgets his home; his deſires are anticipated, and are gratified by a pleaſing variety.

To enable the reader to compare this character with the light in which Iriſhmen are viewed by the colder judgments of foreigners, we ſhall preſent the following touches from the pencil of a reſpectable Engliſh traveller*.

"It is but an illiberal buſineſs for a traveller, who deſigns to publiſh remarks upon a country, to ſit down coolly in his cloſet, and write a ſatire on the inhabitants Severity of that ſort muſt be enlivened with an uncommon ſhare of wit and ridicule, to pleaſe. Where very groſs abſurdities are found, it is fair and manly to note them; but to enter into character and diſpoſition is generally uncandid, ſince there are no people but might be better than they are found, and none but have virtues which deſerve attention, at leaſt as much as their failings; for theſe reaſons, this ſection would not have found a place in my obſervations, had not ſome perſons, of much more flippancy than wiſdom, given very groſs miſrepreſentations of the Iriſh nation. It is with pleaſure, therefore, that I take up the pen, on the preſent occaſion, as a much longer reſidence there enables me to exhibit a very different picture: in doing this, I ſhall be free to remark, wherein I think the conduct of certain claſſes may have given riſe to general, and, conſequently, injurious condemnation.

"There are three races of people in Ireland, ſo diſtinct, as to ſtrike the leaſt attentive traveller: theſe are the Spaniſh, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Corke, tall and thin, but well made, a long viſage, dark eyes, and long black hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of ſettlement on the coaſt of Kerry, which ſeemed to be overlooked by government. There were many of them in Queen Elizabeth's reign; nor were they entirely driven out till the time of Cromwell. There is an iſland of Valentia on that coaſt, with various other names, certainly Spaniſh. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found

* Mr. Young, in his late Tour in Ireland.

the features which are ſuppoſed to mark that people, their accent, and many of their cuſtoms. In a diſtrict near Dublin, but more particularly in the baronies of Bargie and Forth, in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is ſpoken without any mixture of the Iriſh, and the people have a variety of cuſtoms, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours. The Mileſian race of Iriſh, which may be called *native*, are ſcattered over the kingdom, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munſter; a few conſiderable families, whoſe genealogy is undoubted, remain, but none of them with conſiderable poſſeſſions, except the O'Briens and mr. O'Neal. O'Hara and M'Dermot are great names in Connaught; and O'Donnohue a conſiderable one in Kerry; but the O'Connors and O'Driſchals, in Corke, claim an origin prior in Ireland to any of the Mileſian race.

"The only diviſion which a traveller, who paſſed through the kingdom, without any reſidence, could make, would be into people of conſiderable fortune, and mob. The intermediate diviſion of the ſcale, ſo numerous and reſpectable in England, would hardly attract the leaſt notice in Ireland. A reſidence in the kingdom convinces one, however, that there is another claſs, in general of ſmall fortune,—country gentlemen and renters of land. The manners, habits, and cuſtoms of people of conſiderable fortune, are much the ſame every where; at leaſt there is very little difference between England and Ireland: it is among the common people that one muſt look for thoſe traits by which we diſcriminate a national character. The circumſtances which ſtruck me moſt in the common Iriſh, were, vivacity and a great and eloquent volubility of ſpeech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than any thing we commonly ſee in England, having nothing of that incivility of ſullen ſilence, with which ſo many Engliſhmen ſeem to wrap themſelves up, as if retiring within their own importance. Lazy at *work*, but ſo ſpiritedly active at *play*, that, at *hurling*, and other manly exerciſes, they ſhow the greateſt feats of agility. Their love of ſociety is as remarkable as their curioſity is inſatiable; and their hoſpitality to all comers, be their own poverty ever ſo pinching, has too much merit to be forgotten. Pleaſed to enjoyment with a joke or witty repartee, they will repeat it with ſuch expreſſion, that the laugh will be univerſal. Warm friends, and revengeful enemies; they are inviolable in their ſecrecy, and inevitable in their reſentment; with ſuch a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the ſecret or perſon of a man, although that man were an oppreſſor. Hard drinkers and quarrelſome; but civil, ſubmiſſive, and obedient. Dancing is ſo univerſal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing maſters, to whom the cotters pay ſix-pence a quarter for teaching their families. Beſides the Iriſh jig, which they can dance with a moſt luxuriant expreſſion, minuets and country dances are taught; and I even heard of cotillions coming in.

"But I muſt now come to another claſs of people, to whoſe conduct it is almoſt entirely owing, that the character of the nation has not that luſtre abroad, which, I dare aſſert, it will ſoon very generally merit: this is the claſs of little country gentlemen* tenants, who drink their claret by means of profit rents; jobbers in farms; bucks; your fellows with round hats, edged with gold, who hunt in the day, get drunk in the evening, and fight the next morning. I ſhall not dwell on a ſubject ſo infinitely diſagreeable, but remark, that theſe are the men among whom drinking, duelling, raviſhing, &c. &c. are found as in their native ſoil; once to a degree that made them the peſts of ſociety: they are growing better; but even now one or two of them introduced by accident (where they have no buſineſs) into

* This expression is not to be taken in a general sense. God forbid I should give this character of all country gentlemen of small fortunes in Ireland: I have myself been acquainted with exceptions.—I mean only, that, in general, they are not the most liberal people in the kingdom.

better company, are ſufficient to derange the pleaſures that reſult from a liberal converſation. A new ſpirit; new faſhions; new modes of politeneſs exhibited by the higher ranks, are imitated by the lower, which will, it is to be hoped, put an end to this race of beings; and either drive their ſons and couſins into the army or navy, or ſink them into plain tradeſmen or farmers, like thoſe we have in England, where it is common to ſee men with much greater property, without pretending to be gentlemen. I repeat it from the intelligence I received, that even this claſs are very different from what they were twenty years ago, and improve ſo faſt, that the time will ſoon come, when the national character will not be degraded by any ſet.

"That character is upon the whole reſpectable: it would be unfair to attribute to the nation at large the vices and follies of only one claſs of individuals. Thoſe perſons, from whom it is candid to take a general eſtimate, do credit to their country. That they are a people learned, lively, and ingenious, the admirable authors they have produced will be an eternal monument; witneſs their Swift, Sterne, Congreve, Boyle, Berkeley, Steele, Farquhar, Southerne, and Goldſmith. Their talent for eloquence is felt and acknowledged in the parliaments of both kingdoms. Our own ſervice both by ſea and land, as well as that (unfortunately for us) of the principal monarchies of Europe, ſpeak their ſteady and determined courage. Every unprejudiced traveller, who viſits them, will be as much pleaſed with their cheerfulneſs, as obliged by their hoſpitality; and will find them a brave, polite, and liberal people."

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ireland is the proteſtant; its eccleſiaſtical diſcipline is ſimilar to that of England, and is under four archbiſhops and eighteen biſhops. The four archbiſhoprics are Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam; and the eighteen biſhoprics are Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Corke, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Kilmore, Leighlin and Ferns, Limerick, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

The diſſenters are almoſt as various as in England; but the moſt prevailing are the Roman catholics, preſbyterians, quakers, anabaptiſts, Moravians, and methodiſts, all of whom are tolerated by law.

Constitution and laws] Ireland is at preſent a diſtinct kingdom, governed by its own parliaments. From the time of the acceſſion of the kings of England to the ſovereignty of Ireland, until the tenth year of the reign of Henry VII. the mode of enacting laws within the Engliſh pale in the parliaments of that country, was nearly the ſame as in England; the king's viceroy ſummoning and holding parliaments at pleaſure, in which were enacted ſuch ſtatutes as were then thought expedient or neceſſary. But ill uſe, as it was then termed, having been made of this power, in particular by lord Gormanſtown, deputy lieutenant in the reign of Edward the fourth, a ſet of acts was introduced by ſir Edward Poynings, lord deputy in the reign of Henry VII. thence called Poynings' laws, and paſſed; one of which, viz. 10 Henry VII. c 4. provided, "That no parliament be hereafter ſummoned or holden, unleſs the king's lieutenant then being ſhall previouſly certify to the king, under the great ſeal of Ireland, the cauſes and conſiderations thereof, and the articles propoſed to be paſſed therein; and that after the king, in his council of England, ſhall have conſidered and approved, or altered ſaid acts, or any of them, and certified them back under the great ſeal of England, and ſhall have given licence to ſummon and hold a parliament, then the ſame ſhall be ſummoned and held, and the ſaid acts ſo certified, and none other, ſhall be therein introduced, paſſed, or rejected;" in expoſition of which, by ſtatute third and fourth of Philip and Mary, it was afterwards enacted, "That any new cauſes or conſiderations might be certified, even during the ſeſſion of parliament." But the uſage till lately was, that bills were framed in either houſe under the name of "heads of a bill or

bills," and thus were offered to the lord lieutenant and privy council, who, on the uſual application, tranſmitted them to the king, or rejected them without any tranſmiſſion.

By another of Poynings' laws, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 22. it was enacted, that "all ſtatutes before that time paſſed in England, ſhould be in force in Ireland." From the making of which law, all ſubſequent Engliſh ſtatutes were abſurdly ſuppoſed to have bound* Ireland, if therein named or included under general words.

About the beginning of the reign of George I. in conſequence of its being a queſtion, whether England had a right to make laws to bind Ireland, which was ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh; an act was paſſed in the Britiſh parliament (6th of Geo. I. c. 5.) whereby it was declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably annexed and united thereto, and that the kings majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled, hath power to make laws to bind Ireland."

However, this atrocious and inſolent uſurpation of the legiſlative rights of Ireland was of ſhort duration. For, after the emancipation of the trade of that kingdom in the year 1779, the 10th ſtatute of Henry VII c. 4. before mentioned, was very much altered by an act paſſed in the Iriſh parliament, in the twenty-firſt and twenty-ſecond years of George III. namely, ſtatute the twenty-firſt and twenty-ſecond George III. cap. 47. by which it was enacted, "That the lord lieutenant and council of Ireland ſhall certify under the great ſeal of the ſame, to his majeſty, without addition, alteration, &c. all ſuch bills, and no other, as the parliament of Ireland ſhall judge to be expedient; that all bills ſo certified and returned back again under the great ſeal of England, without any alteration whatever, and none other, ſhall paſs in the Iriſh parliament." "And that no bill ſhall be certified into Great Britain, as a cauſe or conſideration of holding any parliament. Provided always, that no parliament be ſummoned or holden, until a licence be obtained from his majeſty for that purpoſe." And this act of the Iriſh legiſlature was followed by a declaration of rights, under the form of an addreſs to the throne, not a little ſtrengthened by the ſpirited and united efforts of the whole Iriſh nation, who, with one voice, and with the very arms in their hands, with which they defended themſelves from the enemies of the empire, when deſtitute of their own eſtabliſhed forces, who at that time were bleeding in every quarter of the world in the ſupport of the Britiſh ſtandard, firmly demanded and inſiſted, from the Britiſh parliament, the reſtoration of thoſe rights, which the tyrannic oppreſſion of their predeceſſors had wreſted from them. While, on the other hand, that ſenate reſtored to the Iriſh their legiſlative, as they had before done, their commercial rights; not only repealing the 6th Geo. I. c. 5. but paſſing an act renunciatory of their former groundleſs claim to what they now declared to be the rights of their hitherto oppreſſed and injured neighbours.

At preſent, therefore as has been mentioned, the Iriſh nation is governed by parliaments of its own, which conſiſt of the king in his legislative capacity, the lords ſpiritual (22) and lords temporal (now 165) who, together with the king, or his viceroy, ſit in one houſe; and the commons (300) compoſed of knights, citizens, and burgeſſes elected by the people, who ſit in another; and theſe in conjunction form the Iriſh parliament, which alone is inveſted with the previlege of making new laws, or altering or repealing thoſe already made for the government of Ireland. In which the manner of proceeding, from the firſt introduction of the

* This act has been extended ſince to all theſe ſubſequent Britiſh ſtatutes relative to property and trade in Ireland, by ſtatute 21ſt and 22d Geo. III. c. 48. (Iriſh) paſſed in order to quiet and ſettle poſſeſſions.

bill into either houſe, till it is tranſmitted to England, by the lord lieutenant, in order to receive the royal aſſent, is nearly the ſame with that of the Britiſh parliament.

In reſpect of duration, the parliaments of the two countries differ; the parliament of Ireland before the beginning of the reign of George the third was perpetual, and is at preſent, octennial; whereas that of Britain is ſeptennial.

The common law of England was adopted in Ireland by the council of Liſmore, in the reign of Henry II. and has ever ſince been the common law of Ireland; between which and that of England, there is hardly any difference, except where the alterations made in it by the ſtatute law of either country, may have produced a ſlight variation. But, to ſpeak generally, the principles of both are the ſame, and the deciſions of the courts at Weſtminſter, are of high authority, in guiding the determinations in ſimilar caſes of the courts at Dublin, which, in number, and extent of juriſdiction, are ſimilar to thoſe at Weſtminſter, ſome few and trivial deviations, in the peculiar practice of each court, excepted.

There are likewiſe eccleſiaſtical and admiralty courts in Ireland, as in England. The kingdom is divided into five circuits; the principal county town in each of theſe is viſited twice a year by two of the twelve judges, who ſit as judges of aſſize and jail delivery, alternately, for the hearing and deciding of ſuits by *Niſi Prius*, and for the trial of priſoners.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] This ſubject has at length become of conſequence to the people of Ireland. Through the concurrence of various favourable circumſtances, the revolution in America, and the embarraſſment of Britain, Providence, ſeconding the courage and virtue of the people, broke the chains, which trading jealouſy and national injuſtice had ſo long impoſed upon that oppreſſed nation. Whilſt the ſun of commerce and power in Venice, in Genoa, in Holland, the Netherlands, and other countries, roſe and ſet; the kingdom of Ireland, more fruitful in ſoil, more powerful in people, more fortunate in ſituation, and more ſtrong in natural reſources, was compelled, for ſeveral hundred years, to look on theſe events, a joyleſs and indifferent ſpectator. During that long night of miſery to Ireland, her fields were ſtained with the blood of inſurrections rapidly treading on the heals of each other; raiſed either by a ſenſe of the moſt horrible oppreſſion, or fomented by the intereſted artifices of Engliſh miniſters and their deſpotic minions, who drove the people to deſperation and revolt, in order to riot on the ſpoils of confiſcation. Theſe produced perpetual change and conſequent inſecurity of property. In a country ſo diſtracted, manufactures could not take root, and commerce could not flouriſh. They are the offſpring of peace and ſettlement, which were there experienced but for ſhort intervals till the revolution.

The linen and woollen manufactures ſeem to be indigenous in Ireland. The former is ſpoken of in the earlieſt period of its hiſtory, and the materials of flax and yarn, were even protected from exportation by duties laid thereon ſo early as the 11th of Elizabeth; the woollen appears not only of equal antiquity, and probably anterior to that of England, but was encouraged and regulated by various acts of Edward III Henry VIII. &c. However, with the commencement of the ſeventeenth century, may be dated the firſt appearance of tranquility, and the perfect cultivation of the arts of peace: which roſe principally from the attention beſtowed upon Ireland by James I inſomuch, as ſir John Davies obſerves, that the "ſtrings of the Iriſh harp were all in tune; effected," ſays he, "by the encouragement given to the maritime towns and cities; as well to increaſe the trade of merchandize, as to cheriſh mechanical arts." During this reign, and until the fatal period of 1641, the progreſs of trade and manufactures was ſenſible, and the ſhipping is ſaid to have increaſed an hundred fold; but the diſorders which aroſe at that time were long felt; manufactures were eradicated, and the manufacturers had fled; ſo that the principal

ſource of the national wealth, for ſome time after the reſtoration, was the export of live cattle to England; which the Engliſh, in the year 1666, prohibited as a "common nuiſance *"

In the 2 year of Charles II. the original Engliſh navigation act was paſſed, in the benefits of which Ireland had an equal participation; but ſubſequent Engliſh ſtatutes of that reign not only unjuſtly excluded her, but impoſed many ſevere reſtrictions on the plantation trade, by which ſhe experienced great commercial hardſhips, till partly removed by the liberation of her trade in 1779; much of its evils, however, yet remain, particularly in being precluded from landing Weſt India produce, &c. in England from Ireland, which is one of the numerous and groſs inequalities of trade between the two countries.

Deprived of the export of cattle, which was the only ſource of her wealth at the time above mentioned, the nation, driven to the utmoſt diſtreſs, had no reſource but in working up her own commodities, to which ſhe applied with the greateſt ardour. She increaſed the number of ſheep, and purſued the woollen manufacture with ſuch ſucceſs, that, in 1687, it became of conſiderable importance. In that year there were exported 11,360 pieces of new draperies, and 1,129,716 yards of frizes; but the troubles which aroſe at the revolution, gave a ſevere check to the growing proſperity in this line, from which, however, it began to recover in a few years, when it experienced an almoſt complete innihilation, by one of the ſevereſt and moſt unjuſt ſtrokes of trading deſpotiſm ever exerciſed over a nation.

In 1698 †, the lords and commons of England addreſſed king William to employ his influence in Ireland to "ſuppreſs the woollen manufactures therein; to which he anſwered the lords, "His majeſty will take care to do what their lordſhips have deſired"—and to the commons he anſwered, "I ſhall do all that in me lies to diſcourage the woolen trade in Ireland ‡"—and indeed ſo ſucceſsfully was this baneful influence employed upon the Iriſh legiſlature, that they paſſed an act laying heavy duties on the export of their woolens to England, where a law was alſo made in the following year, prohibiting the Iriſh exports to other countries, ſo that between the two legiſlatures, the manufacture was as completely annihilated as it could be by law.

It would be abſurd to pay any attention to the reaſons which were aſſigned in juſtification of this proceeding; it was in fact the argument of ſtrength and union over weakneſs and diviſion; and the affectation of giving the Iriſh excluſſive poſſeſſion of the linen manufacture as a compenſation, was only the offering of inſult in lieu of rights. They poſſeſſed that manufacture, as has been ſhown, for ages before, not as the principal, but as ſecond to the woollen, which was conſidered as the ſtaple; a ſtaple that employed the greater part of the nation, that clothed her people, and ſupplied a great and valuable export. "The immediate conſequence to Ireland ſhowed the value of what ſhe loſt; many thouſand manufacturers were obliged to leave the kingdom for want of employment: many parts of the ſouthern and weſtern counties were ſo depopulated, that they have not yet recovered a reaſonable

* The words of ſir William Petty (than whom none knew the ſtate of the kingdom better at the time) are very ſtrong: "Why ſhould they breed more cattle, ſince it is penal to import them into England? why ſhould they raiſe more commodities, ſince there are not merchants ſufficiently ſtocked to take them of them, nor provided with other more pleaſing foreign commodities, to give in exchange for them? and how ſhould merchants have ſtock, ſince trade is prohibited and fettered by the ſtatutes of England.

† In this year, petitions were preſented to the Engliſh parliament, ſtating a ſingular grievance ſuffered from Ireland, "by the Iriſh catching herrings at Waterford and Wexford, and ruining the petitioners' market." Eng. Com. Jour. vol. 12.

‡ Perhaps the moſt complete inſtance of Iriſh folly that can be met with, is the veneration for the memory of William entertained by ſo many Iriſhmen, notwithſtanding the above circumſtance, which has laid the foundation of moſt of the diſtreſſes ſince experienced by that oppreſſed and harraſſed nation.

number of inhabitants; and the whole kingdom was reduced to the greateſt poverty and diſtreſs*."

In conſideration of this loſs, Ireland was to enjoy full and unrivalled poſſeſſion of the linen trade; as if one manufacture was ſufficient for the employment of the whole nation, eſpecially where a large majority were totally ignorant of the proceſs or habits of the trade, and poſſeſſed but little of the neceſſary materials; whilſt, in the other, the hands were formed even to enviable perfection, and the *primum* was poſſeſſed at home in abundance.—The women of Ireland were to become ſpinners for the Engliſh manufacturers, and the richer were to become the clothiers for the poorer nation.

Several years had elapſed before the promiſed encouragement to the linen was granted; and ſo wretched was its ſtate, in the year 1700, that the exports of that articles amounted in value but to 14,112l. At length, in 1705, on the remonſtrance of the Iriſh houſe of commons, repreſenting the ruinous ſtate of the country, the Engliſh ports in Aſia, Africa, and America, were opened to Iriſh white and brown linens. Little advantage could be derived from this conceſſion, as the Iriſh were prohibited by an Engliſh act of 1670, and another of William III. from bringing in plantation goods, without firſt landing them and paving duties in England; but indeed the principle of excluſive patronage to the manufacture was ſoon abandoned; "for the encouragement of this trade in England and Scotland has been long a principal object to the Britiſh legiſlature; and the nation that encouraged Ireland to the undertaking, is now become her rival in it†."

The duty laid on the importation of Iriſh fail-cloth into Britain, in 1750, violated the impoſed contract, cut ſhort that branch of the manufacture, and ſends a large ſum to foreigners for the ſame article: ſuch is national faith. Linen is now the ſtaple of Scotland; and the extent of the manufacture in England is ſaid to be equal to that of the other two kingdoms together‡.—The bounties granted on the exportation of Iriſh linens from England, in 1743, profeſſed to be intended as a favour. This has proved more ſpecious than ſolid: it inſures ſo much of the carrying trade to her, and the extenſion of the ſame bounties to her own linens has ſo far foſtered them, that ſhe ſends them to market on better terms than the Iriſh linens, which are encumbered with double freight, commiſſion, &c. amounting to fourteen per cent. which is much in favour of Engliſh linens out of Engliſh ports at a foreign market.

Such was the memorable contract, as it was called, forced on Ireland in 1699.—It was not to prevent the Iriſh from underſelling at foreign markets, but to prevent their ſelling at all; and the meaſure was proved as injurious to England as it was unjuſt. The manufacturers were forced into France, Germany, and Spain. The two latter now ſupply themſelves with many ſpecies of the manufacture; and ſuch has been the progreſs of the French, that they underſell the Engliſh.

Having thus given a ſhort detail of the remarkable occurrences which led to the commercial ſlavery of Ireland, we ſhall now turn from a ſubject, which, however neceſſary to be known, has ceaſed to be intereſting; and ſhall take up a view of the Iriſh trade and manufactures, when they became leſs reſtricted and of more conſequence.

It has been already ſhown, that the people of Ireland, reſtricted in the woollen, were obliged to direct their chief attention to the manufacture of linen. As with individuals, ſo with nations, when the public mind is excluſively bent to one object, it can hardly fail to ſucceed in its purſuit to a conſiderable degree. An act of parliament having paſſed in Ireland in 1709, empowering the lord lieutenant to ap-

* Com. Reſt. of Ireland. † Com. Reſt. of Ireland. ‡ Lord Sheffield on the trade of Ireland. p. 62.

point truſtees for the diſpoſal of the revenue granted for the encouragement of the linen manufacture; he accordingly appointed ſuch truſtees, compoſed of an equal number of the principal perſons in each of the four provinces, and aſſembled them on the 10th of October, 1711, when the deed of their appointment was read; and they proceeded to the execution of their truſt. From this board, called the *Truſtees if the linen and hempen manufactures in Ireland*, has the important object of their appointment received the moſt zealous and unremitting attention; and to them is Ireland principally indebted for the flouriſhing ſtate to which the manufacture has attained, and for the character it maintains in all countries. The province of Ulſter was the firſt wherein it was extended; here it was actively undertaken by the induſtrious deſcendents of the hardy Scotch colonies ſettled therein, and it ſtill continues the principal ſeat of the manufacture. To this it is indebted for the poſſeſſion of thoſe bleſſings, which general induſtry beſtows upon a people; ſuperior wealth, ſuperior civilization, ſuperior knowledge, and that independence of mind which ſuch advantages naturally inſpire. This is a leſſon to a wiſe legiſlature, to ſtimulate them to the univerſal employment of the people; and muſt convince them, that the proſperity and happineſs of a nation do not depend more on its numbers, than its general induſtry. The other provinces have but a ſmall comparative ſhare. Connaught has, however, been making conſiderable advantages in the coarſer branches, for ſome years.

To give the reader a more perfect idea of the progreſs and importance of this manufacture, we have annexed a view of the quantities exported at different periods; and, as the export of linen yarn is in ſome degree connected with the ſubject, we have alſo given a ſimilar view of it.

EXPORTS.

Years.	Linen cloth.	Linen yarn.		
	Yards.	Cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
1713	1,819,816	11,862	2	17
1723	4,378,545	15,672	3	17
1733	4,777,076	13,357	2	21
1743	6,058,041	14,169	1	10
1753	10,493,858	23,238		4
1763	16,013,105	34,468		7
1773	18,450,700	28,078	3	25
1783	16,039,705	35,812	3	23
1784	24,961,898	33,013	2	15
1785	26,677,647	28,842	1	5
1786	28,168,866	31,062		20
1787	30,728,728	31,049	2	0

A view of this table, extracted from the Iriſh cuſtom-houſe accounts, proves two material points, firſt, that the increaſe of the manufacture has been ſteady and progreſſive; and ſecondly, that the export of yarn has not increaſed during the laſt twenty-four years. To theſe obſervations we muſt add another, that the exports of Ireland have increaſed conſiderably to other countries, as well as to Britain; as may be ſeen by contraſting the two following periods.

1783—— 826,737 Yards.
17[illegible]7——2,745,412 Do.

The Iriſh have long deſired to be independent of foreign countries for their ſupply of flax-ſeed, and therefore the truſtees have paid particular attention to that object for many years, in the application of bounties on its growth; the effect of which will be ſeen by comparing the number of acres ſown and claimed for bounty at two periods—premiſing, that the legiſlature judged proper to diſcontinue the bounty of five ſhillings per hogſhead to foreign flax-ſeed imported, and enlarged the bounties on home produce.

	A.	R.	P.
1780——1264	2	22	
1787——9765	2	00	

Under this head comes properly our notice of the lawn, cambric, and other finer branches of the manufacture, moſt of which are in a flouriſhing ſtate.

The woolen manufacture next claims our attention. It has already been ſhown, that Ireland has been in poſſeſſion of this manufacture from a very early period; but that the reſtrictions under which it had laboured for above a century, confined its extent to little more than the clothing of the peaſantry: and although the emancipation of her trade was expected to produce powerful effects upon this manufacture, yet the unreſtrainad export of wool and yarn, and the home market remaining unprotected, have cauſed, and muſt continue to cauſe, this valuable trade to remain in a very torpid ſtate. However, conſidering the number of difficulties under which the manufacture ſtruggles, it is ſurpriſing to obſerve the excellence to which it has arrived.—The beſt Iriſh broad-cloths are little inferior to the Engliſh, and the druggets are much admired. Blanketting and flannels are in high eſteem, and the worſted branches have been brought to great perfection, and may afford fit articles for extenſive exportation.

Another branch of the trade of Ireland is in the produce of cattle, which brings very large returns into the kingdom, although the policy of giving it ſuch unreſtricted operation is much doubted and frequently diſputed. Her exports in this line conſiſt of beef, butter, cheeſe, candles, tallow, hides tanned and untanned, bullocks and cows, hogs, bacon, hog's lard, and pork.—The laſt article is one of her moſt increaſing and valuable exports: it is the principal among the very few reſources of her numerous poor peaſantry, as it is almoſt the only article which brings them money; and, being reared without much expenſe, trouble, or attention, the returns muſt be conſidered as almoſt clear gain to the nation. The average export for five years, ending 1767, was about 40,000 barrels;—for five, ending 1774, was 46,924 barrels;—for five, ending 1782, was 17,085;—and, in the year 1787, it roſe to 101,859.—The exports of beef, butter, and ſome other articles, though always conſiderable, fluctuate in times of peace and war: but that of bullocks and cows has riſen of late years to a moſt alarming height, and is the more important in its conſequences, as the Iriſh have become a manufacturing people; for thereby the tanneries, &c. muſt ſuſtain the moſt eſſential injury, and the induſtry of the people be deprived of conſiderable employment.

The export of hides, tanned and untanned, and ſundry ſpecies of ſkins, is conſiderable, but equally impolitic with the laſt mentioned; as the manufacture of all materials ſhould be carried forward as many ſtages as poſſible. The compleat manufacture of leather into ſhoes, ſaddlery, &c ought to be of great magnitude in Ireland, from the poſſeſſion of ſuch abundance of the raw materials. It is therefore to be hoped, that the attention of the legiſlature will ſoon be turned to an object of ſuch national conſequence, and which of late years affords from England, in ſhoes, &c. an export of 500,000lbs.

It is impoſſible to review this part of our ſubject, without feeling the moſt poignant indignation. To ſee the materials of great manufactures tranſported without

reſtraint, whilſt thouſands of the natives, diſpoſed to be induſtrious, want bread and employment, excites the ſtrongeſt horror and deteſtation of ſuch a blaſting ſyſtem of policy, as Ireland languiſhes under. It is a fact well known, that the French, American, Weſt-India, and other markets are ſupplied with numberleſs articles of ſhoes, boots, ſaddlery, &c. manufactured in various parts of Britain, for which the Iriſh cultivate and ſupply all the neceſſary materials; and ſuch are the baleful effects of Britiſh and miniſterial influence in the Iriſh parliament, that this venal and corrupt body cannot be prevailed upon, by any exertions or remonſtrances of the nation, to apply a remedy to ſo alarming an evil*.

The ſilk manufacture is of great importance, but principally confined to the metropolis, probably from its connexion with the faſhions.—Several branches have been brought to the higheſt perfection; the damaſk and luteſtrings are excellent, and the handkerchiefs are not only ſuperior to the Engliſh, but alſo unrivalled by any nation in Europe. The mixed goods, or tabinets and poplins, have been long celebrated; and the beſt proof of their ſuperior taſte and beauty is, that they are not leſs admired and coveted abroad than at home.

The cotton manufacture is of late introduction, but yet has arrived at great perfection and conſiderable extent, and proves, that there is a fund of induſtry and ingenuity in Ireland equal to any undertaking, when favoured by the patriotiſm and encouragement of the legiſlature. To theſe and the zeal of ſeveral perſons of property, is ſhe indebted for the eſtabliſhment of this new manufacture in ſeveral parts of the kingdom.—Conſiderable ſums have been expended in the erection of mills and machinery. Her coarſer articles are generally able to ſtand in competition with thoſe imported, and the finer denominations of muſlin, &c. are faſt approaching to perfection. Several thouſand hands are now employed in it, and there is every reaſon to believe the manufacture has taken root in the country.

The glaſs manufacture has ariſen to conſiderable conſequence within a few years; and the degree of excellence to which it has arrived, has eſtabliſhed it in the home and forced it into foreign markets. The average imports, of one article alone, may convey an idea of its general increaſe, viz. that of drinking glaſſes, which

For three years, ending	1773	were	209,222
Do. ——	1783,	—	22,248
Do. ——	1787,	—	4,648

This ſhows the decreaſe of importation, and the conſequent increaſe of the home manufacture, which is alſo proved by the export ſince 1781, until which year none had been ſent out of the kingdom.

The manufacture of paper has been advancing by ſilent but ſteady ſteps, to great improvement and importance; and, from the number of hands it employs, and the ſmall proportion which the value of the material bears to the labour, it is certainly of the firſt conſequence to a manufacturing nation.

Theſe are ſome of the principal manufactures in Ireland, moſt of which appear, from the beſt evidence, to be daily increaſing in extent and improvement. Much, however, remains to be done, to bring into action the numerous unemployed hands in every part of the kingdom. The manufactures of ſtockings, ſail-cloth, leather, metals, &c. of which the materials are ſo abundant, are inexhauſtable ſources of induſtry, and earneſtly claim the directing hand of the legiſlature to put them in motion. Ship-building is in a ſtate of unaccountable backwardneſs. This is the more to be wondered at, when it is conſidered, that the materials can be brought in from the north of Europe, nearly as cheap as into any of the Engliſh ports.

* Yet nothing is more common, than to hear Engliſhmen, whoſe induſtry is foſtered by the wiſeſt laws, reproach the Iriſh for their idleneſs!

Having enumerated the leading manufactures, exports, &c. it is neceſſary to obſerve on the principal articles which compoſe the imports; theſe are brought generally from or through Britain*, and conſiſt of her manufactures of various denominations, woolens, ſilks, cottons, mixed goods, haberdaſhery, manufactures of iron, ſteel, and other metals, groceries, hops, bark, earthen-ware, beer, coals, and an infinite number of other articles; beſides the produce of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to a conſiderable amount.

Since the opening of the Iriſh trade, the intercourſe with the United States of America, the Britiſh colonies, and alſo the Weſt India iſlands, has been an acceſſion of conſiderable conſequence. To the latter the exports are principally compoſed of produce, and manufactures of various ſorts; and form a trade that promiſes to increaſe to a great extent, if not reſtrained by the illiberal conſtruction of the navigation laws, which prohibits Ireland ſending the redundancy of her impoſts into the Engliſh markets. The trade to the Britiſh colonies is compoſed of ſimilar exports as to the iſlands, and will probably ariſe to equal importance; but within the United States it is expected to be much ſuperior.

The trade of Portugal is one of the moſt important to the kingdom, and conſtantly produces a conſiderable balance in her favour: in ſome years her export of butter alone has been equal to the whole of her imports from that country, which principally conſiſt of wine, ſalt, oil, fruit, pot-aſh, and cork; for which ſhe ſends in return butter, beef, pork, tallow, cheeſe, ſhoes, new and old drapery, and fine linens, &c. &c.

The trade with Spain conſiſts of nearly the ſame articles of import and export as to Portugal, and the capability of improvement and extenſion is ſuch, from the numerous wants of the great Spaniſh colonies, that an ample field preſents itſelf to mercantile induſtry and enterpriſe.

The exports to France generally conſiſt of beef, butter, pork, hides, candles, tallow, wheat, flour, biſcuit, linens, woollens, ſhoes, and ſundry other manufactures; and the imports, of wine, brandy, paper, capers, oil, cork, ſalt, gloves, cambric, &c. The balance of this trade, though fluctuating, has been generally in favour of Ireland.

The trade with Holland and Flanders conſiſts principally of an export of beef, butter, hides, tallow, linen, new and old drapery, frize, flannels, woollen yarn, &c. and the imports, of flax, thread, linſeed, and linſeed oil, paper, garden-ſeeds, Geneva, ſnuff, drugs, dying-ſtuffs, &c.

The trade with the eaſt country, including Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Ruſſia,

* The people of Ireland continue to complain of the want of reciprocity in their trading intercourſe with Britain, as well as on the ſubject of malt and beer, as a multitude of other articles, not leſs remarkable; the following SCHEDULE of DUTIES (extracted from lord Sheffield's obſervations on the trade of Ireland) on the under-mentioned articles in both countries, is ſelected, in order to convey a more perfect idea of the ſubject. The operation of this odious ſyſtem of inequality would be ſufficient to account for half the diſtreſſes of Ireland.

	Import duties. In Ireland	In England.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
All woolen or old drapery, per yard, ——	0 0 5 ·5	2 0 6 ·2
Stuffs of all kinds, made or mixed with wool, or new drapery, per yard, —— ——	0 0 1 ·5	0 5 11 ·5
Cotton and linen manufactures, and cotton mixed, for every 100l. value on oath, ——	9 18 5 ·4	29 15 10
Linen cloth, printed, for every 100l. value on oath,	9 18 5 ·4	65 10 10
Leather manufactures, for every 100l. value on oath.	9 18 5 ·4	35 15 0
Checks, the piece not above 10 yards, beſides in Britain for every 100l. value on oath,	0 1 3 ·85	0 3 11· 65
Sugar, refined, per cwt. —— ——	1 13 11 ·75	5 6 9 ·95
Starch, per cwt. —— ——	0 6 5 ·6	4 12 1 ·85

Note. The Iriſh duties above ſtated are in Engliſh money, and to all them, except that on ſugar, an additional duty of 5 per cent. is added.

and the Baltic, conſiſts of an export nearly ſimilar to the preceding, and the imports, of iron, timber, deals, tar, train-oil, hemp, flax, bark, &c.

It is to be obſerved, that while the balance of trade is generally in favour of Ireland with moſt countries, it is the reverſe with the Eaſt country.

We cannot cloſe this ſubject without a few obſervations, which naturally ariſe from a review of it. It has been ſeen, to what malignant cauſes we muſt impute the long reſtrictions on Iriſh trade and manufactures, and how much injury enſued to Ireland from them; and that, however they may have improved and extended ſince their liberation, ſhe has ſtill to complain of the jealouſy and want of reciprocity in her intercourſe with England. Ireland is a fruitful ſource of materials, but theſe are all laid at the feet of Engliſh manufacturers, whom ſhe ſeems anxious to prefer to her own, although England jealouſly reſerves all ſimilar returns at home. Whoever will examine the majority of the articles which compoſe Iriſh exports in the foregoing pages, will conclude, that the ſupport of foreign induſtry is more intereſting to Ireland than the promotion of her own.

Coins.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England; but an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

Bank of Ireland.] The ſubſcribers to the national bank were incorporated by charter in 1783, by the name of the governor and company of the Bank of Ireland, and proceeded to buſineſs on the 25th of June in the ſame year, upon a capital ſtock of 600,000l. which conſiſted of 4 per cent. government debentures, depoſited at par. Theſe debentures were cancelled by government, agreeably to act of parliament, and an annuity, at the rate of four per cent. granted in lieu thereof. In addition to their capital, they borrowed 60,000l. previous to the opening of the bank, for which they iſſued debentures at five per cent. and, in 1784, a further ſum of 40,000l. on the like terms.

Military strength.] The military eſtabliſhment of Ireland conſiſts of

Four regiments of dragoon guards,	684 men
Eight regiments of dragoons,	1416
Twenty eight regiments of foot,	13132
Total	15,232

To this is to be added the ordnance, which is on a diſtinct eſtabliſhment, and is compoſed of ſix companies of fifty men each, making in the whole 300.

Of this force, Britain may employ ſeven regiments, (or 3283 men) on foreign ſervice, at the expenſe of Ireland; but, during the late war, the principal part of the army was withdrawn, ſo that, in the year 1777, there were little more than 3000 men left for the protection of Ireland.

Thus deprived of the national defence, and in expectation of foreign invaſion, ſhe adopted the expedient of volunteer aſſociations. This meaſure, produced by the neceſſity of the moment, might have ultimately raiſed Ireland to an ability of ſetting Engliſh deſpotiſm forever at defiance. The opportunity was neglected, and the nation is now, in the literal ſenſe of the word, governed by Engliſh dragoons.

Cities, pueblic edifices, &c.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in extent, elegance, and number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions. It is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, on the river Liffey, near its junction with the ſea, in latitude 53° 20′, and is about 270 miles N. W. of London.---To trace out the origin of Dublin, or to point out the time when it was firſt built, would be a taſk as difficult as uncertain. The earlieſt accounts mention it as a place of conſiderable

importance. Ptolemy, who flouriſhed in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year of Chriſt 140, calls it *Eblana Civitas*: this, without having recourſe to fable, gives Dublin a juſt claim to an antiquity of more than ſixteen hundred years. In the preface to king Edgar's charter, dated in the year 964, he mentions Ireland, with its moſt noble city of Dublin.

At the commencement of the ſeventeenth century, the river Liffey was not embanked by quays on the north ſide, and only a part of it on the ſouth. The ground now called the Bachelor's-walk, the two Ormond-quays, eaſt and weſt of Eſſex-bridge, the Inn's-quay, Arran-quay, and Ellis's-quay, taking up, in the whole, an extent of ground about a mile and a half, on which is erected a number of handſome houſes, inhabited moſtly by merchants, was then covered with ooze, and overflowed by the tides, except a ſmall part about the king's-inns, which had been a monaſtery of Dominican friars, where the intended extenſive and elegant public offices are now erecting.

DUBLIN is equal in magnitude to above one-fourth of London and Weſtminſter.---From the Royal Hoſpital at Kilmainham, the weſtern extremity of the city, to the eaſt end of Lazar's-hill, it is two miles and a half long, and its greateſt breadth is nearly equal; ſo that the circumference may be about eight Iriſh miles: but, on account of the irregularity of the buildings in the ſuburbs, it is impoſſible to be exact. It lies moſtly on a level, or rather low, in reſpect to the adjacent country; a great part of the old town being built on a marſhy foundation. Its increaſe during the laſt twenty years, is almoſt incredible: in the year 1754, the return of houſes was 12,857, and in 1766, it was 13,194. It now contains at a moderate computation, about 15,000 houſes, moſtly full of inhabitants, who are eſtimated at 200,000 ſouls; and is daily increaſing both in extent and population.

Dublin would have had a commodious and ſecure ſtation for ſhipping, if the entrance of the bay had not been ſo choaked up, that veſſels of great burden cannot come over the bar: but the defects of the harbour are greatly remedied, by a prodigious work of ſtone, and piles of wood, extending about three miles into the bay. This great and laudable work was undertaken in conſequence of a ſtatute made in the 6th of queen Anne, chap. 2. called the ballaſt act; but by ſubſequent ſtatutes and aids, this work has been purſued with more alacrity and effect. At the end of the piles, there is a light-houſe erected, curiouſly conſtructed of hewn ſtone. The approach to the city, from the harbour, exhibits one of the moſt beautiful proſpects imagination can form an idea of: it is a ſpacious amphitheatre, bounded moſtly by a high ſhore; and the country all around is ſpangled with white villas. When the city is viewed from the water, the landſcape is highly picturesque, the horizon, upon the ſouth, being bounded by mountains, exactly conical, called the Sugar-loaf-hills; and, on the north, by the pleaſing contraſt of an extenſive plain, clothed with the moſt liberal productions of nature, and enriched by the united efforts of art.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſhips of a moderate burden, as far as the old cuſtom-houſe, is but narrow, the breadth being in ſome parts 250 feet, in others only 140. It runs for two miles almoſt ſtraight through the city, dividing it nearly into two equal parts, forming ſpacious quays, walled-in the whole length of the city. At the breadth of a wide ſtreet from the river on each ſide, the houſes are built oppoſite each other, which has a pleaſing effect. Over the Liffey are erected ſix bridges; three of them, Eſſex, the queen's, and Carliſle are elegant ſtructures; the other three, Ormond, Arran, and Bloody bridges, have little to recommend them, beſides affording the convenience of paſſage.

This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and ſends two members to parliament; the univerſity ſends two more. Beſides two cathedrals, there are eighteen pariſh churches, eight chapels of eaſe, two churches for French, one for Daniſh, and one for Dutch proteſtants; ſix meeting-houſes for preſbyterians, one for baptiſts,

three for methodiſts, one for Moravians, two for quakers, fifteen Roman-catholic chapels, three nunneries, one Jewiſh ſynagogue, and fourteen hoſpitals. There are, alſo, the linen and yarn halls, fifteen public markets for every ſpecies of proviſions, of which Ormond market is perhaps the firſt in Europe.

The caſtle of Dublin was originally built in the beginning of the thirteenth century. In the reign of king John, it was a place of ſtrength, moated and flanked with towers; but the ditch has been long filled up, and the old buildings taken down, except the wardrobe tower: Birmingham tower, at the weſtern extremity of the caſtle, was left ſtanding until the year 1775, when it was taken down, and re-built in 1777, and is now called Harcourt tower. It was formerly a place of confinement for ſtate priſoners, and is at preſent a repoſitory for preſerving the antient records of the kingdom. The upper caſtle yard is an oblong ſquare, and has little to recommend its external appearance in architecture or beauty; the apartments, however, which are occupied by the viceroy, the council-chamber, the Hall of St. Patrick, &c. are worthy a viceregal palace. In the lower caſtle-yard, are the treaſury, ordnance, and other offices; and near them are the buildings for keeping the military ſtores, with an arſenal, and an armoury for 40,000 men.

The foundation ſtone of the parliament-houſe was laid in 1729, and the building completed in 1739, after the plan of mr. Caſſel, at an expenſe of near 40,000l. This ſuperb pile deſerves praiſe.

The courts of juſtice, or four courts, and public offices, are ſituated on the Inn's quay; and form an elegant and extenſive pile of buildings. The new cuſtom-houſe, from its extent, the multitude and variety of its parts, the ingenuity and comprehenſion of its deſign, and the beauty and correctneſs of the execution, would deſerve a more elaborate detail than the limits of this work can indulge. It is two hundred and nine feet deep, by three hundred and ſeventy-five feet in extent, and has the ſingular advantage of four fronts. The whole building conſiſts of large and ſtriking features, forming a novel and agreeable aſſemblage of well contraſted lines. This edifice is compoſed partly of Portland, and partly of white mountain ſtone; it was founded in 1781, and has coſt upwards of two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling.

The royal exchange, the lying-in-hoſpital, the blue-coat hoſpital, the linen and yarn halls, the royal hoſpital, and the military hoſpital, are all buildings of uncommon beauty and elegance. The royal hoſpital is intended for the reception of ſuperannuated veterans; but the number was very lately (May 1793) much inferior to what it ought to be; and it was underſtood that government paid for the ſupport of at leaſt an hundred penſioners who exiſted only upon the governor's liſt. The poor men are under ſubjection to a ſyſtem of rules, which are hung up in the room where they all dine together. Theſe rules are drawn up in that harſh ſtile, which is uſual in the army, and the ſlighteſt fault is almoſt inevitably puniſhed with inſtant expulſion. At the ſame time, they are pilfered with impunity by their ſuperiors, as follows: they enjoy a certain allowance of clothes, which are made up for them by a tailor employed by the governor, or ſome other perſons, who enjoy the benefit of the job. This man is ſuffered to finiſh the work in ſuch a manner, that the invalids muſt engage and pay a ſecond tailor out of their own pockets, before a ſuit of theſe clothes can be put on. A few uſeleſs officers engroſs a great part of the annual expenſe of the hoſpital into their own pockets. Such is the method in which the public money is waſted under the farcical pretence of charity! Greenwich hoſpital is a buſineſs of the ſame kind. Some years ago, ſir Cecil Wray offered to produce documents in the houſe of commons, that the invalids in that hoſpital coſt the nation more than twice the ſum which was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence; but he could not obtain attention. No opportunity ſhould be omitted

to expoſe, in their genuine infamy, thoſe miſcreants, who thus riot on the ſpoils of want and wretchedneſs.

Dublin abounds with charitable inſtitutions of every imaginable deſcription; a circumſtance which reflects honour on the benevolence of the citizens. Immenſe ſums, perhaps not leſs than fifty thouſand pounds ſterling, are annually raiſed by charity ſermons. Religious animoſities, the moſt ſtupid and fantaſtical ſpecies of human folly, are fading faſt; and, did the nation enjoy a better and honeſter ſyſtem of government, would be very ſoon extirpated.--------The inhabitants in general are ſocial, liberal, and benevolent, and, as we formerly remarked, deſpiſe the vulgarity of national ſarcaſms. No ſubject has ever been more groſsly miſunderſtood or miſrepreſented than the character of the Iriſh nation.

Cork is the ſecond city in the kingdom, and capital of the province of Munſter. It is ſeated on an iſland in the river Lea, which being interſected by ſeveral canals, ſhips are brought up almoſt to every ſtreet. The city is three miles long, and near two broad, containing above 80,000 inhabitants. Formerly the ſtreets and houſes were narrow and inelegant; but the public and private buildings of late years are in the ſtile of modern elegance, and alike declare the improved taſte, ſpirit, and riches of the inhabitants. The trade of Cork is very conſiderable, and its exports are in ſome articles much ſuperior to thoſe of the metropolis. In the time of war, it is the great market for proviſions, from whence the Britiſh navy draw an inexhauſtible ſupply. The other articles of export conſiſt of corn, wool, bay and woollen yarn, camlets, ſerges, hides, butter, candles, ſoap, tallow, herrings, &c. Wool-combing is carried on to ſuch extent in this county, that half the wool of Ireland is ſaid to be combed there; the manufactures conſiſt of camlets, ſerges, ratteens, frizes, druggets, narrow cloths, coarſe linen, ſtockings, &c.

Limerick is a cheerful and flouriſhing city, large, populous, and regular; three miles in circumference; and ſuppoſed to contain above 40,000 inhabitants. It is 92 miles S. W. by W. from Dublin, and about ſixty miles from the ſea.

Belfast, though, a few years ſince, of inferior or ſecond rate conſequence, now ranks amongſt the firſt towns in Ireland; to which importance it has arrived by the moſt rapid extenſion, and for which it is indebted to the enterpriſing activity of its merchants, the uncommon induſtry of its people, and its ſituation, being the medium through which are conveyed the imports and exports of a populous and great manufacturing country. Belfaſt is in the county of Antrim, on the river Lagan, at its junction with the Lough of Belfaſt, is ſuppoſed to contain at leaſt 30,000 inhabitants, and ſends two members to parliament. Its trade has riſen, and is daily riſing, into conſiderable value; the exports of linen, manufactured cotton, glaſs, corn, beef, pork, and ſundry other articles, are great; and its various manufactures form ſome of the moſt important in the kingdom.

Waterford ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the Suire, a broad and rapid river without any bridge, and about four miles and a half from its junction with the Nore and Barrow, all which, united, form the harbour. The trade it carries on with Newfoundland, and of which it enjoys the principal ſhare, is of the utmoſt importance, as upwards of ſeventy ſail of ſhipping are employed in the ſupply of the banks with proviſions, &c. and return from thence and the Weſt Indies with fiſh, rum, ſugar, cotton, &c. Some idea of the proviſion-trade here may be formed by the vaſt number of large hogs killed, which amount to upwards of 3000 per week, for many weeks together; and of butter there have been exported from hence from 60 to 80,000 casks a year.

Kilkenny is one of the beſt inland cities in the kingdom, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Nore, diſtant fifty-ſeven miles ſouth-weſt from Dublin. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants: this city was once of great conſequence, as may be ſeen by the number of venerable ruins yet remaining of magnificent churches, monaſteries, and abbies,

which, even now, in their dilapidated ſtate, exhibit ſuch exquiſite taſte in architecture, as may vie with any modern improvements.

GALAWAY is the moſt conſiderable town in Connaught, and the capital of the county of the ſame name. It is ſeated on the noble bay of Galway, on the Weſtern Ocean, and is 120 miles weſt from Dublin. It is ſurrounded with walls, and, including its ſuburbs, contains about 15,000 inhabitants.

LONDONDERRY is one of the moſt conſpicuous cities in Ireland, as well for its extent and trade, as for its ever-memorable ſiege. It lies 115 miles north-north-weſt from Dublin, in the province of Ulſter, and is the capital of the county of the ſame name. It is ſeated on an eminence or declivity, of an oval form, being almoſt a peninſula at the bottom, on the narrow part of Lough Foyle, which ſurrounds, for a quarter of a mile abroad, two thirds or more of the eminence, and by which it has an open navigation to the ſea, on the very north of the kingdom. Its trade is conſiderable. The exports conſiſt of grain, &c. and the exertions of the inhabitants in the Greenland and other fiſheries have been ſucceſsful.

NEWRY is in the county of Down, 50 miles N. from Dublin, and ſeated on the Newry Water, which is rendered navigable for large veſſels into the bay of Carlingford; and, by a noble canal, which joins the Bann river, this town has a communication with Lough Neagh and all the circumjacent neighbourhood.

DROGHEDA is ſeated on the river Boyne, which is navigable for ſhips of burden to the quay; it is 23 miles N from Dublin, is large, and the ſtreets generally ſpacious, neat, modern, and well built.

WEXFORD is capital of the county of the ſame name, 67 miles S. from Dublin; it is built near the ſea, upon the river Slaney, which empti s itſelf into the ocean here; the haven is very large, and the entrance is defend ed by two narrow necks of land, each forming an iſthmus, that ſtretches forward to meet each other, leaving an opening of about half a mile.

SLIGO is a ſea-port town, capital of the county of the ſame name, and is 103 miles N W. from Dublin. Its ſituation on a great bay opening into the Atlantic ocean, and which abound with innumerable ſhoals of fiſh, gives it many advantages, and renders it a fiſhing ſtation of the firſt importance, as it is no leſs eligible for the trade of the weſtern wo ld. The quantity of linen and linen yarn exported from Sligo is very conſiderable, thoſe manufactures having ſpread themſelves through this part of the kingdom with great rapidity.

ARMAGH, HILLSBOROUGH, LISBURN, COLERAIN, and ſeveral other towns in different parts of the kingdom, claim more attention than the limits of our work can afford. Armagh is not only one of the greateſt markets for linens, but is perhaps unrivaled by any other in Ireland, of equal extent, for the beauty of its public buildings. Hillſborough claims its ſhare of praiſe on the ſame account; and Liſburn and Colerain, beſide poſſeſſing a large portion of the linen buſineſs, merit equal notice for their extreme neatneſs, and the ſpirit and induſtry of their inhabitants

NATIONAL DEBT*.] The debt of Ireland is conſidered as having originated in 1715, when a vote of credit for 50,000l. was paſſed, on a threatened invaſion of the kingdom.—From that period, its progreſs, though irregular and fluctuating, was conſiderable; and, in the year 1749, it amounted to 205,173l.—However, through the exerciſe of unuſual economy, or an increaſe of revenue, this debt was extinguiſhed, and the nation was afterwards in credit as follows:

CREDIT.

In 1751	——	£. 22,370
1753	——	205,173

* Extracted from the journals of the houſe of commons.

1755	——	L. 471,404
1757	——	249,422
1759	——	84,396

Again the nation engaged in debt, the rapid accumulation of which will appear from the annexed table.

DEBT.		DEBT.	
Years 1761	£. 223,438	Years 1777	£. 834,086
1763	521,161	1779	1,067,565
1765	508,874	1781	1,551,704
1767	581,964	1783	1,919,386
1769	628,883	1784	2,123,343
1771	789,569	1785	2,181,501
1773	994,890	1786	2,052,766
1775	931,690	1787	2,302,146

It appears that this debt has increaſed ten fold in twenty-ſeven years.

History.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of almoſt any other country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to about 500 years before the chriſtian era, at which time as they aſſert, a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into that country; but, as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted part of the Iriſh hiſtory; we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth centuty, that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of chriſtianity in that kingdom, though chriſtian miſſionaries had been there long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England: but, in the year 795 and 798, the Danes and Normans, or as they are called, the Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected the ſtone edifices there. The common habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were of hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh was called Fingal, or the land of ſtrangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of a great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was, about that time, a conſiderable city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the ſecond of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patroniſed by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered, about the year 1168 Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Lienſter, an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor, who, it ſeems, was the paramount

king of Ireland, he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon his taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England, for himſelf and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Theſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords had done the conqueſt of England under William I.; and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year, Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers; but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtate in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh, about the ſame time, to the amount of about 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; and though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and, going over to England, appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hand all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his nobility, landed near Waterford. Not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that, conſequently, he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it might, he held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates in Ireland, as William the conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly as poſſible ſimilar to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſay their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time, Dublin began to flouriſh. Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh, almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among the princes or leaders. Theſe conquerors, it is to be obſerved, behaved with the moſt conſummate barbarity. Sir John Davis informs us, that, even in time of peace, it was adjudged no felony to kill a mere Iriſhman. A very ſmall number only of that people had been admitted to the protection of the laws of England. Three hundred and fifty years elapſed, before they were advanced to this equality. Yet the Engliſh affect to ſuppoſe, that, as conquerors, they enjoyed an hereditary title to legiſlate for that injured nation.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to that iſland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves odious to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much engaged with the cruſades, to pay more regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve

counties; but the defcendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal fubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercifed all acts of fovereignty within their own ftates; and indeed this was pretty much the cafe fo late as the reign of James I. The unfettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant in Ireland, but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he repeatedly defeated the Engliſh governors and armies; and, being ſupported by his brother in perſon, was actually crowned king of Dundalk, and nearly became maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and was at laſt defeated and killed by Birmingham, the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But, during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333, a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the years 1361, prince Lionel, ſon of Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity to the laws of England. In this he made great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, that, at this time the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances of which they complained, was, that, the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England, muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh regarded his preſence as a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, his wiſe conduct entirely won their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition into Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the Iriſh. His army inſpired the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. During this expedition the duke of Lancaſter landed in England: and Richard, upon his return, being deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects, on account of his tyranny, and finding that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered the crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and, upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter; and he was the firſt Iriſh chieftain that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title, as duke of Lancaſter; they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, but were defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious of joining Perkin Warbeck, who was, however, at laſt recognized as king by the Iriſh; and in the preceding pages, under the hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his unfortuate partizans, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take

a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect, during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other; but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, lord-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord-deputy, and was ſeduced by the emperor; but, being taken priſoner, he was at laſt executed at Tyburn. After this, the houſe of Auſtria derived a great advantage, in her quarrels with England, from having a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a powerful party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government, than ever had been known; and even O'Nial, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

At the acceſſion of this prince, the pale conſiſted of no more than four counties. Though Munſter had been, in former days, nominally divided into counties, the people, to uſe ſir John Davies's expreſſions, had become ſo degenerate, that no juſtice of aſſize durſt execute his commiſſion among them. The anſwer of Mac-Guire, chief of Fermanagh, to the lord-deputy, who was propoſing to him to accept a ſheriff in his diſtrict, has been recorded: "Your ſheriff ſhall be welcome to me; but let me know the price of his head (his Eric) in order that, if my people cut it off, I may fine them accordingly."

The pope, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created conſiderable difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland, with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but in that of her ſucceſſor, the reformation excited great diſcontent.

This diſpoſition of the public mind offered a favourable opportunity to Philip II. king of Spain, for promoting his hoſtile deſigns againſt England. Partial invaſions of Ireland had been attempted by the Spaniſh government ſeveral years before the equipment of their armada. A Spaniſh colony, we may even obſerve, was ſupported from remote times, on the ſouth-weſt part of the Iriſh coaſt. An army of ſeveral thouſand Spaniards was actually landed, attended by a pope's nuncio, who gained poſſeſſion of Kinſale. And England thus found herſelf in danger of being beſet, on eaſt and weſt, by the power of Spain, ſo formidable in thoſe days, and of lying in the middle between the land forces of the Spaniards, then centered in the Netherlands, and their naval ſtrength and armaments, ſtationed in the harbours of Ireland.

Theſe conſiderations determined the Engliſh government to make uncommon efforts to ſecure the poſſeſſion of Ireland. Very conſiderable ſubſidies were voted by parliament for that purpoſe; and an army of twenty thouſand men, well provided, was ſent, which, aſſiſted by the advantages and power already poſſeſſed by the government in the country, by ſucceſſive reinforcements from England, and by other favourable circumſtances, effected a complete reduction of all the different lords and

chiefs who till then had ruled in the iſland, after a war which continued about ſeven years.

However, queen Elizabeth did not live to ſee Ireland entirely reduced. The final capitulation with the great chieftain O'Nial, was not ſigned till a few days after her death.

The diſturbances in the reign of Elizabeth will not appear ſurpriſing, if we reflect on the ſeverity which the Engliſh exerciſed on every occaſion upon the original inhabitants of Ireland. In the year 1583, when the garriſon of Smerwick, in Kerry, ſurrendered upon mercy, upwards of ſeven hundred priſoners were butchered in cold blood. This maſſacre was perpetrated by ſir Walter Raleigh. For ſuch exploits, he was rewarded with forty thouſand acres of land in the county of Cork. Walter, earl of Eſſex, father to the famous favourite of the "maiden queen," on the concluſion of a peace, invited Brian O'Nial, chieftain of Claneboy, with a number of his relations, to an entertainment, where, after an hoſpitable reception, which laſted for three days and nights, O'Nial, with his wife and brother, were arreſted. His friends, with their women and children, were butchered before his face; and himſelf, his wife, and brother, were ſent priſoners to Dublin, where they were cut in quarters. The whole hiſtory of Engliſh ſupremacy in Ireland, conſiſts in great meaſure of a ſucceſſion of ſuch enormities.

In the year 1589, ſir William Fitzwilliam entered upon the government of that wretched country. In 1590, M'Mahon, the chieftain of Monaghan, having died, his brother came up to Dublin to obtain the inveſtiture of his eſtate. The title of this claimant neither was nor could be honourably denied; but, to arrive at juſtice, a bribe was neceſſary. He promiſed the deputy ſix hundred cows. He failed in payment, and was impriſoned. The deputy, not long after, went with him to Monaghan, to ſecure the prey. But, either finding it impracticable to collect the number of cattle, or being tempted by a ſight of the eſtate, his lordſhip put the chieftain in Irons, conſtituted a jury of his own private ſoldiers, indicted, tried, and executed him before his own door. The pretence was, a crime ſaid to have been committed about two years before. His lands were portioned out among his aſſaſſins.

In 1594, Fitzwilliam was recalled, and his ſucceſſor, ſir William Ruſſel, had private orders to apprehend O'Nial, earl of Tyrone, a powerful nobleman in the north of Ireland. A ſafe conduct was ſent to him, and he arrived at Dublin. A debate enſued in the council, with reſpect to arreſting him. He gained intelligence of the deſign, and fled. O'Donnel, another chieftain in the ſame part of the iſland, had been ſeized, when a boy of about thirteen years of age, and confined for ſeven years in the caſtle of Dublin. At laſt he made his eſcape, and joining with Tyrone, and other diſcontented noblemen, they erected in Ulſter the ſtandard of revolt.

Elizabeth was exceedingly chagrined at the eſcape of Tyrone, and ſafe conducts were repeatedly proffered, to induce him to pay a ſecond viſit to Dublin. He was too well acquainted with the treacherous character of his enemies, to be decieved by ſuch propoſals. He ſoon gave them battle, and fifteen hundred, or, by other accounts, two thouſand five hundred, of the Engliſh forces were killed. So great an advantage had never before been obtained by the Iriſh over their oppreſſors, from the firſt invaſion of Henry the ſecond, and it ſeems to have been haſtened by an accident. The gunpowder barrels of the Engliſh, in the front of their line, took fire, and the exploſion deſtroyed whole ranks.

The young earl of Eſſex was ſoon after diſpatched to Ireland with an army of twenty thouſand foot, and two thouſand horſe. After various expeditions, in which he loſt a very great part of his army, he at laſt ſet out for the north of Ireland in ſearch of Tyrone. His ſoldiers had by this time been ſo exceedingly reduced, that, though

reinforced by two thouſand freſh troops, from England, Eſſex could muſter only four thouſand men to attend him in this expedition. He could not bring Tyrone to an engagement; and the campaign ended with a conference between the two commanders, and a truce till the month of May ſucceeding. Without attempting a regular detail of the ſubſequent military tranſactions, it is ſufficient here to obſerve, that Tyrone never could be completely ſubdued. His obſtinacy, his ſucceſs, and the immenſe and ruinous expenſes which his revolt impoſed on Elizabeth, have been, by ſome writers, aſcribed as the cauſe of that ſecret melancholy which ſhortened her life. In the beginning of the reign of James the firſt, he ſubmitted in perſon to that monarch, and was honourably received at court.

The guilt of the Engliſh nation, in their government of Ireland, could be equalled by nothing but their folly. "Moſt of the Engliſh inſtitutions," ſays mr. Hume, "were to the laſt degree abſurd, and ſuch as no other ſtate had ever thought of, for preſerving dominion over its conquered provinces."

"The uſual revenue of Ireland," ſays he, "amounted only to ſix thouſand pounds a year; the queen (Elizabeth) though with much repining, commonly added twenty thouſand pounds more, which ſhe remitted from England." Thus the boaſted ſupremacy was, even in times of peace, a loſing bargain. In war, affairs were, of conſequence, an hundred times worſe. Sir John Sinclair ſays, that the rebellion of Tyrone, which laſted for eight years, coſt four hundred thouſand pounds a year. In 1599, ſix hundred thouſand pounds were ſpent in the ſpace of ſix months; and ſir Robert Cecil affirmed, that, in ten years, Ireland had coſt England three millions and four hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. The reader will obſerve, that all this profuſion of treaſure and of blood was expended in maintaining the conqueſt of an iſland, which did not yield a ſhilling of revenue to England, and was not able to defray even a fourth part of the expenſe of its government in time of peace! While Tyrone was in rebellion, as the court of England termed it, Ireland was ravaged by a moſt exterminating famine. The miſerable natives were often reduced to the neceſſity of devouring each other. Theſe diſtreſſes are deſcribed, with circumſtances too ſhocking to be repeated, by Morriſſon, an Engliſhman, and an eye witneſs. "No ſpectacle," ſays he, "was more frequent in the ditches of towns, and eſpecially in waſted countries, than to ſee multitudes of theſe poor dead people with their mouths all coloured green, by eating nettles, docks, and all things they could rend up above ground." Such were the fruits of Engliſh ſupremacy! Yet ſo infatuated were theſe Iriſhmen, that, while they met with every imaginable ſpecies of bad treatment from their tyrants, they compoſed a great part of that Engliſh army which at laſt reduced Tyrone to the neceſſity of ſubmiſſion! Even theſe ſoldiers were diſtinguiſhed from the Engliſh by inferior pay for ſubſiſtence, and were clothed at their own expenſe.

James the firſt is to be conſidered as the firſt Engliſh ſovereign, who poſſeſſed the dominion of Ireland. At this time, oppoſition to the Engliſh government was at an end. He purſued the buſineſs of reformation: but as the king's power in Ireland was now ſo far increaſed beyond what it had formerly been, ſo, the meaſures for altering the religion of the country, were attended with more important effects. The directions concerning the reformation, ſent by the preceding ſovereigns, had only been enforced in the diſtricts and churches within the pale: the orders ſent by the council of James I. now extended to the whole iſland.

The principal meaſures that were adopted at the time of that prince, for raiſing the proteſtant, on the ruins of the catholic religion in Ireland, were the following:

In the firſt place, the colony that was ſent from Britain, to ſettle on thoſe lands which had been ſeized by the crown, as has been above mentioned, was formed of proteſtants and preſbyterians. A ſmall colony, formed on the ſame principle, had

alſo been ſent in the reign of queen Elizabeth, to ſettle on the lands that were taken from the earl of Deſmond, when he was ſubdued and attainted ſome years before the great war againſt the native Iriſh. The proteſtant party by thoſe means acquired that kind of ſtrength and weight, which reſults from conſiderable numbers. For it is to be obſerved, that there were ſcarcely any proteſtants among the old Engliſh inhabitants of Ireland; and there were ſtill fewer among the native Iriſh; as the reformation had made very little progreſs in Ireland.

In the ſecond place, the majority in the Iriſh parliament was allotted to the proteſtant party, through the manner in which the parliament was now compoſed, and in which the right of election was conferred on new-erected counties, corporations, and boroughs.

There had been no parliament held in Ireland for twenty-ſeven years before the time we are ſpeaking of, which was the eighth year of the reign of king James I. The proteſtants were ſo few in Ireland, in queen Elizabeth's time, that the government of the colony could not venture upon calling a parliament: there was too little probability of procuring a majority on the proteſtant ſide, even with the power poſſeſſed by the crown, of erecting new counties, corporations, and boroughs: this had been the cauſe of the long intermiſſion of parliaments that has been above mentioned. The council of James I. in the eighth year of his reign, [1611,] had a more advantageous ſcope, now that the iſland was univerſally ſubdued, and a numerous colony of proteſtant ſettlers had been introduced, who were in poſſeſſion of extenſive tracts of land. New boroughs were erected in thoſe quarters occupied by the new ſettlers. Even then the government found themſelves, at firſt, diſappointed, through the remarkable ardour with which the catholic party exerted themſelves, eſpecially in the elections for counties: the elections were loſt where there was thought to be no danger; and even privy-counſellors were ſometimes excluded. The diſappointment was made up by ſpeedily erecting freſh corporations, or boroughs, and conferring upon them the right of electing members. Hence aroſe the complaints made afterwards by the catholics, that ſeveral new corporations which had ſent members, had been erected, in order to the ſending of precepts to them for elections, after the firſt iſſuing of the writs for calling the parliament.

By this exertion of all their reſources, the government in Ireland obtained a majority in the lower houſe. On the firſt day of meeting, the members of the catholic party were found to be 101; and thoſe in the proteſtant intereſt were 125. The catholic party, being both greatly ſurpriſed and diſappointed at finding themſelves the minor number, at firſt refuſed to recognize thoſe new brethren that had been ſent to them by the new erected corporations; a fracas even took place in the chairing of a ſpeaker; each party appointing a different perſon. But, as the place of the meeting was in the caſtle, as they were ſurrounded by a proteſtant garriſon, and all attendants had been diſmiſſed, as well as ſwords left at the gate, the catholic party were obliged to ſubmit. In the houſe of lords, there were four earls, five viſcounts, and ſixteen barons; in all twenty-five: to them were added twenty-five proteſtant biſhops and archbiſhops.

In order to complete the ſuperiority of the proteſtant party, the penal ſtatutes that had been paſſed in the reign of queen Elizabeth, were put in force. By virtue of theſe ſtatutes, no man, who refuſed to take the oath of ſupremacy, could be inveſted with an office in a corporation, or be a juſtice of peace or a magiſtrate. He was not to be a privy-counſellor, nor to be preferred to any poſt in the government. If a lawyer, he was not to be admitted to plead at the bar, or to fill the office of judge. All the higher dignities of the church, together with church livings, and church emoluments, were allotted to the proteſtant clergy. A weekly

fine was alſo to be laid upon every perſon who ſhould neglect to attend the church ſervice.

By means of theſe meaſures and ordinances, the proteſtant was completely eſtabliſhed, to the excluſion of the catholic religion. And at that period aroſe thoſe formidable party diſtinctions, of catholics, and proteſtants, into which the inhabitants of Ireland have ſince been divided.

The proteſtant party was, on the one hand, formed by thoſe colonies that had, of late years, been ſettled in Ireland. They had on their ſide the ſtrength of the colonial government, which was formed only of themſelves, and the majority of the parliament of the iſland.

On the other hand, the catholic party was formed of the whole maſs of the inhabitants of Ireland, previous to the ſettling of the new colonies: for, as has already been obſerved, there were few or no proteſtants in Ireland before that time.

At the period we are ſpeaking of, the old diſtinctions of native Iriſh, degenerate Engliſh, Engliſh of blood, and Engliſh of the Pale, were forgotten, and loſt in the denomination of catholics. An union was now formed between the Iriſh chieftains and tribes, who, after loſing their lands and their laws, were now to loſe their religion, and the whole of the old Engliſh colony, whoſe lords and men of influence were now to be deprived of their conſequence, whoſe lawyers and prieſts were thrown out of employment, while the numerous commonalty had their churches taken from them, and were inſulted by penalties for not conforming to the religious rites of their opponents. All were now united together under the common banner of the catholic faith, and juſtly turned their eyes towards the proteſtant party, as a common aggreſſor and an enemy.

The reſources of the proteſtant party for maintaining their ground, in the midſt of ſo formidable a confederacy, could not be in their numbers; for, though conſiderable in itſelf, it bore no proportion to thoſe of their catholic opponents. And the advantage they poſſeſſed of forming the colonial government, and of having a majority in the parliament, was only a ſtrength of an artificial kind, which, without farther ſupport, could not ſubſiſt long. Their real, effectual reſources ought to have been in their moderation, and in the ſupport of the Engliſh government. This moderation was not exerciſed, as appears by the ſtate to which, as we have ſaid, the catholics had been reduced; and the Engliſh government was at this period ſo diſtracted, by the conteſt between the king and parliament, that little attention was paid to the preſervation of order, or the ſteady and equal diſtribution of impartial juſtice in Ireland.

It may not be improper to enter into a particular detail of ſome of thoſe numerous acts of tyranny committed by Strafford, while he was deputy of Ireland, and which in ſome meaſure paved the way for the dreadful ſcenes that enſued. During the two firſt years of the reign of Charles the firſt, the catholics of Ireland had enjoyed ſome degree of tranquility. But lord Strafford having, in 1633, been appointed deputy, every rigorous meaſure was renewed. On landing at Dublin, he ſummoned a council, and propoſed to them the calling a parliament. This was agreed to: and it may be worth while to remark ſome of the meaſures, which he took to inſure an aſcendancy in that body. "I ſhall labour," ſaid he, "to make as many captains, and officers, burgeſſes in this parliament, as I poſſibly can; who, having immediate dependence on the crown, may almoſt ſway the buſineſs between the two parties, which way they pleaſe*." One example may ſerve as a ſpecimen of his method of obtaining ſeats in parliament, for his minions.

Strafford had reſolved to make Cateline, recorder of Dublin, one of the repreſentatives for that city. The catholics had exerted themſelves to exclude him, as being

* Curry's Review, vol. i. p. 124.

a proteſtant, and as they were with reaſon apprehenſive of violent meaſures in the courſe of the ſeſſion. The deputy cut the ſtruggle ſhort by ſending for the ſheriff of Dublin, on whom he impoſed an arbitrary fine of two hundred pounds, for "having carried himſelf mutinouſly," and of five hundred pounds more, becauſe he refuſed to ſign a paper "diſabling himſelf from ever bearing that office in the city." Upon this, Cateline and another proteſtant were inſtantly elected. By dint of fair promiſes, mixed with menaces, he obtained conſiderable grants of money from parliament, which were at that time very neceſſary for the government.

One of the great engines of oppreſſion in the Engliſh adminiſtration was, to commence an enquiry into the titles of eſtates. As the country had been in a ſituation of the moſt deplorable anarchy, it was evident that enquiries and forfeitures could be multiplied without end. Much had been accompliſhed in this way by the preceding deputies; but Strafford exceeded the worſt of them. When a jury in Galway did not return a verdict agreeable to his lordſhip, he fined the ſheriff in a thouſand pounds, and each of the jurors in four thouſand pounds. Their eſtates were ſeized, and themſelves impriſoned till theſe fines were paid. It appears, that, on other occaſions, jurors were ſometimes pilloried, with the loſs of their ears, ſometimes bored through the tongue, and at others, branded on the forehead with a hot iron.

"The gentlemen of Connaught," ſays mr. Carte, "laboured under a particular hardſhip on this occaſion." The defect in their titles aroſe from the treachery of a clerk, who had been employed to enrol their patents, obtained in the reign of James the firſt. They had advanced three thouſand pounds to the offices at Dublin, for enregiſtering their deeds. It had been omitted, a circumſtance which preſented an unbounded field for plunder to the vultures of confiſcation. The omiſſion was a mere matter of form. They had paid largely for theſe very patents to the exchequer, were peaceably ſettled in their lands, and paid the compoſition to the king better than any other part of the kingdom. It was the wildeſt outrage of deſpotiſm to turn them out of their eſtates upon a legal quibble. So great were the terrors of the gentry of the county of Galway, that, in 1637, they offered to ſurrender at once their eſtates to the crown, and for that purpoſe ſent a letter of attorney to the earl of Clanrickard, then at London, ſigned by an hundred and twenty-five perſons of the beſt quality in the county. At the ſame time, the ſheriff and jurors, *who were ſtill in priſon*, petitioned, but in vain, for their pardon. They offered to acknowledge the deputy's juſtice, and their own errors of judgment, upon condition only that they and the reſt might be put upon the ſame footing with the other planted counties. In the end, one half of their lands were confiſcated; and the petition of the jurors were rejected, becauſe Strafford inſiſted on their making an explicit acknowledgment that they had been guilty of perjury, which conceſſion they refuſed to make.

Strafford himſelf was guilty of an action which plainly ſhowed, that he ſaw his own conduct in its true light. In the preamble to the act of parliament, by which the ſubſidies were granted, there was inſerted a ſeries of thanks to Charles the firſt, for having placed over Ireland ſo wiſe, vigilant, and juſt a governor, who had augmented the public revenue without oppreſſing the people, and who had been anxious to relieve the diſtreſſed. Mr. Carte has, on the credit of this preamble, pronounced a ſplendid eulogium on the adminiſtration of Strafford, and mr. Hume has beſtowed uncommon labour in compoſing a panegyric for this deputy. We advert to the miſtake of theſe two diſtinguiſhed authors, to prove how very imperfectly the hiſtory of Britain and Ireland has hitherto been written. The adminiſtration of Strafford, ſo far from being meritorious, was, as we have already ſeen, to the laſt degree tyrannical and odious; and as to the pretended atteſtation of its excellency, mr. Carte ought to have taken proper notice of a proteſtation entered againſt it, in the journals of the houſe of commons; in which proteſtation

they were joined by the houſe of peers. They declare, " that this preamble to the act of ſubſidies was contrived, penned, and *inſerted fraudulently, without the privity of the houſe*, either by the earl of Strafford himſelf, or by ſome other perſon or perſons, adviſers, procurers, or actors of or in the manifold and general grievances of his majeſty's kingdom of Ireland."

The rebellion in 1641 has been ſtrangely miſrepreſented. As to the provocations which made the Iriſh, or a part of them, prompt for inſurrection, the treatment which they received forms a ſufficient apology. Mr. Hume has repreſented the conſpiracy as general; and had it been ſo, it would only have afforded an evidence of the juſt indignation of the people. But the gentlemen of Ulſter were forced into an inſurrection, by the wanton ſeizure of their lands; and the horrid detail of maſſacres, on which mr. Hume has exhauſted his rhetoric, has very little foundation. It was not the Roman catholic clergy, who excited theſe diſturbances; for even mr. Carte, who certainly was not their friend, declares, that, although this conſpiracy was aſcribed to them, " not more than two or three of them appeared to know any thing of it." Sir John Temple, who has been copied by a croud of ſucceeding hiſtorians, repreſents the revolt as long before concerted and reſolved upon. But unfortunately he contradicts this idea by another paſſage, wherein he informs us, " that ſir Phelim O'Nial, and many others of the prime leaders in this rebellion, did, *not long before it broke out*, turn their Iriſh tenants off their lands, even to ſtarve upon the mountains; while they took in Engliſh, who were able to give them much greater rents, and more certainly pay the ſame." This behaviour eſtabliſhes the fact, that theſe inſurgents had neither intended nor foreſeen what was to happen. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that, at their riſing, the revolters had " not many better weapons, than ſtaves, ſcythes, and pitchforks." This affords another preſumption that the revolt was unpremeditated. As to the ſubſequent commotions in the other provinces, they reſulted from the groſſeſt oppreſſion, and the proſpect of relief, which the ſucceſs of their countrymen in Ulſter held out to them. Mr. Hume has enlarged upon the defenceleſs condition of the Engliſh colonies in Ulſter; but mr. Carte has quoted the manuſcript journal of an officer in the royal ſervice, which places the ſcene in a very different light. The veracity of this author, and his opportunities of authentic information, can hardly be diſputed. If he had been diſpoſed to violate the laws of truth, it certainly would not have been in favour of the Roman catholics of Ireland. He gives a minute and daily account of whatever happened in Ulſter, during the firſt weeks of this inſurrection; and it is remarkable, that he advances no charge of barbarity againſt the Iriſh. So far were the Engliſh colonies from being in that helpleſs ſituation which mr Hume has deſcribed, that, as this writer computes, the proteſtants of Ulſter " had killed near a thouſand of the rebels *in the firſt week* of the rebellion." In a ſkirmiſh that he mentions, two hundred of the people of Colerain repulſed a thouſand of the inſurgents. In another, ſixty of them were ſlain, and of their adverſaries, who did not loſe a ſingle man, only two were wounded. In all this we ſee nothing of that bloated picture of treachery, barbarity, and univerſal maſſacre, which mr. Hume has been ſo anxious to illuſtrate. The idea is altogether abſurd, when we reflect upon the actual ſtate of the country. The earl of Clanrickard informs us, that " the Scots in Ulſter were forty thouſand well armed men, when the rebellion commenced; that the rebels were by one half leſs numerous, and furniſhed with few better weapons than ſtaves, ſcythes, and pitchforks; and that the inſurgents forbade any of their followers, on pain of death, to moleſt any of the Scottiſh nation in body or goods." Farther, Temple, an Engliſh writer already cited, acknowledges it " to be a truth, that thoſe Britiſh, whom the rebels ſuffered to live among them, and ſuch as they kept in priſon, were not put to the ſword by the Iriſh, until, in their ſeveral encounters with his majeſty's forces, they ſuffered loſs of their men,

and ſo were enraged." Theſe are the words of an eye witneſs, who was himſelf a perſonal enemy to the rebels; yet even here we find no traces of the mournful rhapſody of mr. Hume.

What ſort of treatment provoked the inſurgents to maſſacre their priſoners, we learn from the ſame authority. Sir Henry Tichbourne expelled ſir Phelim O'Nial from Dundalk. He boaſted that for ſome weeks after, "there was neither man nor beaſt to be found *in ſixteen miles*, between the two towns of Drogheda, and Dundalk; nor on the other ſide of Dundalk in the county of Monaghan, nearer than Carrickmacroſs, a ſtrong pile, *twelve miles diſtant.*"—After ſuch havoc on the Engliſh ſide, is it wonderful that the Iriſh began to commit actions of ſimilar barbarity? The *lex talionis*, the principle of retaliation, is engraved with indelible characters on the human heart. The melodious paragraphs which mr. Hume has devoted to commemorate the ferocity of ſir Phelim O'Nial, might, with at leaſt equal propriety, have recorded the butcheries committed by Tichbourne. This monſter vaunted of theſe enormities as a glorious achievement; but O'Nial, in his laſt moments, declared, "that the ſeveral outrages committed by his officers and ſoldiers, in that war, contrary to his intention, then preſſed his conſcience very much." May we not now turn the declamation of mr. Hume againſt his cauſe? When we hear a military ruffian boaſting that he had left *neither man nor beaſt in an extent of twenty-eight miles*, we are juſtified, for deſcribing ſuch a ſcene, in adopting the language of this elegant, but unfaithful hiſtorian. "After rapacity had fully exerted itſelf, cruelty, and that the moſt barbarous that ever in any nation was known or heard of, began its operations. An univerſal maſſacre commenced of the Engliſh," (*Iriſh*, he might have ſaid) "now defenceleſs, and paſſively reſigned to their inhuman foes. No age, no ſex, no condition was ſpared. The wife weeping for her butchered huſband, and embracing her helpleſs children, was pierced with them, and periſhed by the ſame ſtroke. The old, the young, the vigorous, the infirm, underwent the ſame fate, and were confounded in one common ruin. In vain did flight ſave from the firſt aſſault. Deſtruction was every where let looſe, and met the hunted victims at every turn." But, when we conſider the buſineſs with impartiality, we ſhall find that the Engliſh were in an uncommon degree deſerving of extirpation. They were unprovoked invaders, and unfeeling oppreſſors. The Iriſh had never diſturbed England. As to the pretended right of ſupremacy derived from the conqueſt of Henry the ſecond, that is at beſt but an atrocious and deſpicable ſophiſm. The Engliſh had an equal title to have invaded and plundered any other nation in the world; and every ſuch nation would have been entitled to exterminate them, as quickly as poſſible. Mr. Hume is perpetually appealing on Iriſh affairs to ſir John Temple. No credit is due to an author, who is himſelf aſhamed of his performance. Temple would not ſuffer his book to paſs through a ſecond edition, as mr. Crawford has informed us, in his hiſtory of Ireland. Yet mr. Hume quotes him as an authority of diſtinction.

The practice of maſſacring in cold blood appears to have begun on the ſide of the eſtabliſhed government. In the iſland of Magee, a number of Iriſh families, who had no concern whatever in the inſurrection, were cut to pieces in their beds, by a party of aſſaſſins, who had for that purpoſe ſailed out of Carrickfergus. Dr. Curry has rendered it at leaſt highly probable, that this horrid action took place before any barbarities were committed by the rebels. Mr. Carte ſtates theſe victims, at three thouſand men, women, and children. Others make their amount much leſs; but, whatever was the extent of theſe operations, the principle that inſpired them, was exactly the ſame.

As to the evidence of the maſſacres committed by the inſurgents, the whole hiſtory of this rebellion has been written in ſuch a manner, that our aſtoniſhment ſuffers no reſt. Thirty-two folio volumes of manuſcripts, containing

what is called evidence on this ſubject, are depoſited in the Univerſity of Dublin. From this enormous maſs of malignity, of falſehood, and of nonſenſe, Temple and Borlaſe, two of the principal hiſtorians cited by ſucceeding writers, have ſelected ſuch teſtimonies as they conſidered to be leaſt credible, to ſupport their tremendous narratives. Dr. Warner examined the original manuſcripts; and he obſerves, that, though all the examinations, ſigned by the commiſſioners, are ſaid to be *upon oath*, yet the fact is otherwiſe. Infinitely the greater number of them have the words *being duly ſworn*, croſſed out, with the ſame ink, in which theſe examinations are tranſcribed. In others, where theſe words remain, many parts of the examinations are croſſed out. Hence it follows, that the bulk of this immenſe collection, is parol evidence. That is indeed a matter of ſmall conſequence, ſince many of the circumſtances are in themſelves utterly incredible, though they had been atteſted by the combined depoſitions of the whole human race. For example, numerous depoſitions atteſt, that crouds of proteſtant ghoſts were ſeen in erect poſtures in a river where the perſons themſelves had been drowned, *ſhrieking out, revenge!* As a ſpecimen of the ſtyle of Temple, ſo reſpectfully quoted above twenty times by mr. Hume, in the laſt edition of his hiſtory, the reader may peruſe the following paſſage. "Hundreds of the ghoſts of proteſtants, who were drowned by the rebels at Portnadown-bridge, were ſeen in the river bolt upright, and were heard to cry out for revenge on theſe rebels. One of theſe ghoſts was ſeen, *with hands lifted up*, and ſtanding in that poſture, from the 29th of December to the latter end of the following lent." It is not wonderful, that the writer of this book attempted afterwards to ſuppreſs it. But it is ſomewhat ſtrange that a perſon like mr. Hume, who had a character to loſe, ſhould have quoted ſuch an extravagant and deſpicable ſcribbler, as an authentic hiſtorian. Borlaſe, in his performance, which bears a fraternal reſemblance to that of Temple, has celebrated dr. Maxwell, biſhop of Kilmore, and one of theſe notable witneſſes, as "a perſon, whoſe integrity and candour none ever dared to queſtion." This biſhop, in his depoſition, deſcribes theſe apparitions as ſometimes having been ſeen, by day and night, walking upon the river; ſometimes brandiſhing their naked ſwords; ſometimes ſinging pſalms; and, at other times, ſhrieking in a moſt fearful and hideous manner. He adds, "that he never heard any man ſo much as doubt the truth thereof; but that he obliged no man's faith, in regard he (the biſhop) *ſaw them not with his own eyes;* otherwiſe he had as much certainty, as could morally be required in ſuch matters." If this be not the language of impoſture or inſanity, we know not where to find it. If a biſhop was not aſhamed to countenance ſuch atrocious fictions, what was to be expected from the herd of the ſpecies? Or what are we to think of perſons, who ſit down to compile ponderous volumes, and appeal to ſuch a ſtupid aſſemblage of falſehoods, as a ſerious hiſtory?

With reſpect to the number of proteſtants, who periſhed by the hands of the rebels, mr. Hume eſtimates them from forty thouſand to two hundred thouſand. This is another groſs miſrepreſentation, and altogether correſpondent to the ſtory of ghoſts, who *ſang pſalms, and ſtood bolt upright*, &c. &c. Dr. Warner appears very willing to believe the worſt of the Iriſh rebels. Yet, after examining the manuſcripts, he ſays, that "the number of people killed, upon poſitive evidence, collected in two years after the inſurrection broke out, amounts only to two thouſand one hundred and nine; on the report of other proteſtants, one thouſand ſix hundred and nineteen more; and, on the report of ſome of the rebels themſelves, a farther number of three hundred; the whole, both by poſitive evidence and by report, making four thouſand and twenty-eight" He adds, that there is, in the ſame collection, evidence on the report of others, of eight thouſand killed by harſh uſage. This ſort of teſtimony deſerves no farther notice.

On the 5th of May, 1652, *ten years after the commencement of the rebellion*, the commiſſioners of the Engliſh parliament in Ireland, tranſmitted to the government

of England, a letter on this ſubject, which has been conſulted by dr. Warner—theſe partizans were undoubtedly diſpoſed to make the moſt of the ſtory; yet they ſtate only eight hundred and forty-eight families, beſides ſix thouſand and ſixty-two other perſons, who were killed, hanged, or burnt. Yet ſir William Petty, who was ſecretary to Ireton, informs us, that thirty thouſand Britiſh were killed, beſides thoſe who fell in battle, during the very firſt year of this inſurrection. Clarendon, ſtill more ſanguinary, deſtroys forty or fifty thouſand perſons in the firſt two or three days of it; and ſir John Temple, with his wonted regard for truth, affirms, "that one hundred and fifty thouſand proteſtants were maſſacred in cold blood, in the two firſt months of the rebellion."

That dreadful murders were committed, is true; but theſe were chiefly by the Engliſh themſelves. Borlaſe relates, that ſir William Cole, in the courſe of a year, with only a regiment of five hundred foot, and a troop of an hundred horſe, killed two thouſand four hundred and ſeventeen ſwordſmen, of the rebels. He likewiſe ſtarved to death, "ſeven thouſand of the vulgar ſort; *whoſe goods were ſeized on by the regiment.*" Borlaſe adds, "after this rate, the Engliſh in all parts fought." How could theſe mercileſs deſtroyers have the effrontery to ſpeak of *Iriſh* barbarity! Colonel Gibſon, an Engliſh officer, having taken a caſtle near Dublin, put to the ſword ſeveral hundred of people, ſparing neither man, woman, nor child. An endleſs croud of ſuch exploits renders the account of ſir William Petty, formerly quoted, perfectly credible, that Ireland, in the ſpace of *eleven* years, had loſt almoſt one half of her inhabitants. It is to be remarked, that theſe aſſaſſinations were perpetrated by a people, who, at that very time, were making the moſt vigorous exertions to ſupport *their own* liberties againſt the tyranny of Charles the firſt. They completely underſtood the principles of government; ſo that no plea of vindication can be ſupported by the ſuppoſition of their ignorance.

As to the outrages committed by the inferior claſſes of the Iriſh inſurgents, no reaſonable accuſation can be from thence inferred againſt the general character of the nation. With equal juſtice we might infer the character of the Engliſh nation, from the conduct of the incendiaries of Birmingham, or of the adventurers, who, at this day deſolate the plains of Indoſtan. When Owen O'Nial aſſumed the command of the Iriſh forces, he expreſſed the utmoſt abhorrence of the barbarities that had been perpetrated upon the oppoſite party; he told ſir Phelim O'Nial that he himſelf deſerved the ſame treatment; he actually burnt the houſes of ſome of the murderers, and proteſted that he would ſooner join the Engliſh, than forbear to burn the reſt. Dr. Maxwell, whoſe evidence has already been referred to, ſays, that the mother of this very ſir Phelim preſerved twenty-four Engliſh and Scots men in her own houſe, and fed them at her own expenſe for thirty-ſeven weeks; and that when the approach of an Engliſh army made her flight neceſſary, ſhe ſet both them and Maxwell himſelf at liberty. One of her ſons conducted thirty-five Engliſhmen out of Armagh to Drogheda; though it was ſuſpected, that he had private orders to murder them. He conducted twenty others in ſafety to Newry. Dr. Warner obſerves, that "all the gentlemen in Munſter were exceedingly careful to prevent bloodſhed, and to hinder the Engliſh from being pillaged and ſtripped, though it was many times impoſſible." Lord Mountgarret, having detected one of his party, of the rank of a gentleman, plundering in his preſence, ſhot him dead with his piſtol. His lordſhip's ſon, colonel Edmund Butler, having taken poſſeſſion of Waterford, mr. Carte ſays, "that none of the inhabitants, of whatever country or religion, were either killed or pillaged; and ſuch of the Britiſh proteſtants as had a mind to leave the place, were allowed to carry off their goods wherever they pleaſed." Compare this generoſity with the boaſted exploits of Tichbourne, who had left neither man nor beaſt in an extent of twenty-eight miles!

The Iriſh leaders in the ſervice of England ſeem to have been inſpired with the

ſame diabolical inhumanity, as their maſters. The caſtle of Ardmore, in the county of Waterford, ſurrendered *upon mercy*, to lord Dungarvan, and lord Broghill. An hundred and ſorty of the priſoners were put to the ſword. On another occaſion, lord Broghill declared, "that he knew not what *quarter* meant." Sir Frederick Hamilton, another Iriſh royaliſt, burnt Sligo, and ſlew in the ſtreets three hundred people.

On the other hand, when the towns of Callan, Gowran, Clonmell, Carrickmaggriffit, and Fethard were taken by the Iriſh, the inhabitants were treated with the utmoſt kindneſs. At Fethard, mr. Lowe, vicar of Cloyne, was murdered. The accomplices, three in number, were apprehended, confeſſed their crime, and were hanged. In the beginning of the revolt, ſir Richard Everet, an Iriſh baronet, ſent the richeſt of the Engliſh planters in his neighbourhood, with their property, into the Engliſh quarters. The poorer ſort, conſiſting of eighty-eight perſons, he kept and maintained; till the middle of June, 1642, a ſpace of ſix or eight months; he then conveyed them to Mitchel's town, and when that place was reduced by his party, he brought ſome of theſe families back to his own eſtate. When Birr ſurrendered to the inſurgents, the Engliſh garriſon and inhabitants, to the amount of eight hundred perſons, were conveyed, in a long march of two or three days, to a place of ſafety. This, and a profuſion of anecdotes of the ſame nature, have been recorded by mr. Carte, an Engliſhman, who was nowiſe diſpoſed to magnify the virtues of the Iriſh nation.

Among other falſehoods which have been crouded into the account of this event, there is one, upon which mr. Hume, and a thouſand other writers, have expatiated with uncommon virulence. The Roman catholic religion has been reproached as the cauſe of a revolt, which was evidently the conſequence of oppreſſion and deſpair. To caſt the blame of the exceſſes committed by the rabble, on their prieſts, is an act of the utmoſt injuſtice. In May, 1642, an aſſembly of the Roman catholic clergy was held at Kilkenny. Three titular archbiſhops, ſix biſhops, the proxies of five others, and a number of inferior prieſts, were preſent. They denounced excommunication againſt every member of their communion, who ſhould "murder, diſmember, or grievouſly ſtrike; all thieves, unlawful ſpoilers, or robbers of any goods; and ſuch as favoured or received them." In this cenſure they comprehended "all ſuch as had invaded, or ſhould invade, the poſſeſſions or goods of any Iriſh proteſtant, not being their adverſary, and ſhould detain them." Their clergy were expreſsly prohibited from hearing the confeſſions of ſuch offenders; and to adminiſter the ſacrament to them, was forbidden under the penalty of inſtant excommunication. It is indeed likely, that theſe injunctions were ſometimes diſobeyed, and that, as among other religioniſts, fanaticiſm would ſometimes embitter the ferocity of the mob. But it is the climax of abſurdity to calumniate a whole ſect, or a whole nation, for the follies or the crimes of a few inſignificant and worthleſs individuals. In ſpite of the ſlanders echoed by mr. Hume and others, it is atteſted, beyond all contradiction, and by writers of all parties, that the Roman catholic clergy did not confine their benevolence to a barren edict. Upon ſome occaſions, they protected or concealed the Engliſh fugitives from the fury of the croud, in their places of worſhip, and under their altars. On the taking of Caſhel, by the catholics, dr. Pullen, dean of Clonfert, with his wife and children, were preſerved by James Saul, a Jeſuit. Some Franciſcan friars, at the ſame time, exerted their influence in a manner ſuitable to their profeſſion. Dr. Bedel, biſhop of Kilmore, when a priſoner among the Iriſh catholics, was never interrupted in the exerciſe of his religion, though his houſe and out-buildings, his church and church-yard, were full of people, who flocked around him for ſhelter. "From the 23d of October," ſays biſhop Burnet, "to the 18th of December following, he, and all thoſe within his walls, enjoyed, to a miracle, perfect

quiet." When he died, he was buried in conſecrated ground; the chiefs of the inſurgents attended his funeral; and one of his chaplains was directed to bury him according to the rites of the church of England. At his interment they fired a volley of ſhot, crying out, in Latin, *Hic requieſcat ultimus Anglorum!* "May the laſt of the Engliſh reſt in peace." Edmund Farilly, a catholic prieſt, who was preſent at the ſame time, exclaimed, *O ſit anima mea cum Bedello!* "Would to God that my ſoul were with Bedel." In conduct of this kind, we trace none of that atrocity, with which the Roman catholics have been ſo loudly charged. We dwell with pleaſure on theſe minute particulars, as diſplaying the bright ſide of human nature, as tending to place in a proper rank, in the moral ſcale, the character of a nation, which, by a ſingular fatality, has been more inceſſantly and more groſsly calumniated, than any other people ſince the firſt origin of human ſociety.

"On eagles' wings, immortal ſcandals fly;
"While virtuous actions are but born, and die."

For almoſt ſix weeks from the beginning of this inſurrection, it had been confined to Ulſter; the other three provinces remained in peace. Even in the firſt deſign of the conſpirators, that of ſeizing the caſtle of Dublin, not one of the catholics of that city was concerned, though that ſect was fifteen times more numerous than the proteſtants, and though there was not one company of the army, at that juncture, in the metropolis. Even ſo late as June, 1642, the lords juſtices themſelves, who were in an high degree bigoted, ſanguinary, and vindictive, atteſted, that no particular crimes could be laid to their charge, and that there was no ground of accuſation againſt them, beſides bare ſuſpicion. The cauſes why the revolt became general, are now to be explained.

We have already obſerved, that the landholders of Ulſter had been driven into reſiſtance, by that notable project of an inquiry into defective titles. Charles the firſt, who was, by this time, on the brink of hoſtilities with his Engliſh ſubjects, had become diſpoſed to atone for the ravages of his favourite Strafford; and two bills had been ſuffered to paſs through the parliament of Ireland, which were, in that country, conſidered as a barrier againſt the future inroads of government. In Auguſt, 1641, juſt about two months before the revolt began, the Iriſh parliament, having tranſmitted theſe bills to England for the royal aſſent, were in hourly expectation of the return of their agent. But, on the other hand, ſir William Parſons, and ſir John Borlaſe, the two lords juſtices, were determined to adjourn the two houſes, before theſe bills ſhould arrive. They had been forced into the offices, which they ſo much diſgraced, by the parliament of England, in oppoſition to the will of the king. They were apprehenſive, that, by paſſing theſe two bills, Charles would obtain the affections of the Iriſh nation; and they were ſenſible, that ſuch a conjunction would have brought the cauſe they eſpouſed in England, into the greateſt danger. It was, indeed, only by the aſſiſtance of the Scots, that the parliament party were at laſt able to vanquiſh the royaliſts; and it is at once evident, that, had Charles ſucceeded in fixing the attachment of the Iriſh nation, he would have been at leaſt not inferior in point of ſtrength to all his enemies. The puritans perfectly underſtood the importance of fomenting diviſions at this criſis between Charles and his Iriſh ſubjects; and, without this previous explanation, the proceedings of Borlaſe and Parſons would ſeem, at the firſt view, no leſs abſurd than they were criminal. Beſides this motive, of itſelf ſufficiently powerful, the thirſt after confiſcation, which had afforded ſuch immenſe fortunes to their predeceſſors, was an inducement to throw the nation into a ſtate of revolt—and there was a ſtill further reaſon to be found in the fanaticiſm

of the times; which prompted the prevailing party to ſeek the extermination of the catholics:—"Sir William Parſons, out of a ſtrange weakneſs, or deteſtable policy, aſſerted before many witneſſes, at a public entertainment, that, within a twelve-month, no catholic ſhould be ſeen in Ireland*." "It is evident, from the lords juſtices' letter to the earl of Leiceſter, then lord lieutenant, that they hoped for an extirpation, not of the mere Iriſh only, but of all the old Engliſh families alſo, that were Roman catholics†."

From this digreſſion we return to the tranſactions at Dublin. Charles, in the month of May, preceding, had ſent expreſs orders to the lords chief juſtices, to paſs the bills ſo neceſſary to the peace of Ireland, and their lordſhips muſt have been conſcious, that they would receive the royal aſſent. Yet, in ſpite of the intreaties of both houſes of parliament, who requeſted them to wait the return of the bills, they adjourned that aſſembly for three months. This meaſure, as no doubt was intended, caſt the whole country into confuſion, alarm, and diſtreſs; and muſt be regarded as the proximate cauſe of the revolt of Ulſter. Soon after this baneful adjournment, the agents of the Iriſh parliament brought both bills, with the aſſent of Charles, to Dublin, and made application to Borlaſe and Parſons, that theſe acts might be publiſhed, by an official proclamation, to ſatisfy the minds of the people. But theſe artful men, who had long been in the habit of thwarting the deſigns of Charles, never gave this notice. On the 16th of November, the parliament met, according to the terms of its adjournment. But the juſtices, who were determined that no buſineſs ſhould be done, once more prorogued the aſſembly, after a ſitting of only two days; though the rebellion was, by this time, ſpreading all over the north of Ireland. They did not even deign to take the ſmalleſt notice of the two popular bills, which had received the royal aſſent, and which, conſequently, were, for the time at leaſt, annihilated. It is impoſſible to conceive a more glaring inſult on the common ſenſe of a people.

As it became evident, that the lords juſtices were rather diſpoſed to excite than prevent diſturbances; ſo it naturally followed, that they would decline any proper meaſures for putting a deciſive ſtop to the rebellion, when once it had begun. Various offers were made for this purpoſe. The earl of Ormond, in particular, undertook to purſue and attack the inſurgents, if the Engliſh government would ſupply his ſoldiers with proviſions. This propoſal was rejected, under pretence that there was a want of arms: "a pretence," ſays mr. Carte, "ſo notoriouſly falſe, that it could only be made uſe of, to cover motives which their lordſhips were aſhamed to confeſs; for there was, at this time, in the ſtores of the caſtle, a fine train of artillery, ammunition of all ſorts, in great quantities, arms for above ten thouſand men, tents, and neceſſaries of all kinds for the march and proviſion of an army." Lords Dillon and Iaafe, provoked at the trifling or perfidious conduct of the juſtices, addreſſed the king himſelf on this ſubject, in a letter, which was intercepted. Theſe two noblemen were, by orders of the Engliſh houſe of commons, arreſted, and, after a confinement of ſeveral months, made their eſcape to Charles, then at York. We can hardly queſtion the aſſertion of dr. Leland, that, "whatever were the profeſſions of the chief governors, the ONLY DANGER THAT THEY REALLY APPREHENDED, was that of *a too ſpeedy ſuppreſſion of the rebellion.* Extenſive forfeitures were their favourite object."

Borlaſe and Parſons had lent ſome arms to the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood of Dublin, to enable them to defend themſelves againſt the rebels. Theſe arms were immediately recalled, and the diſarmed and defenceleſs people fled for refuge to Dublin. The lords juſtices drove them back to the country. The houſes of ſir Robert Talbot had been burnt by the inſurgents; and his family had fought

* Carte's Life of Ormond, vol. I. page 235. † Warner's Hiſtory of the Iriſh Rebellion.

refuge in Dublin. His offers of aſſiſting to quell the revolt were refuſed, and he was compelled, under pain of death, to quit the city. He was forced, at laſt, to join the inſurgents; and his large eſtate was portioned out among the followers of Cromwell.

No ſigns of a general inſurrection had yet appeared in any part of Ireland, except Ulſter. But, upon a report of ſome diſturbances in Wicklow, ſir Charles Coote was diſpatched from Dublin, with a body of troops to ſuppreſs them. He exceeded even the common meaſure of barbarity employed againſt the Iriſh. He was, in April, 1642, ſhot dead, and it was believed that he had been aſſaſſinated by his own ſoldiers. About a fortnight after the nobility and others had been expelled from Dublin, the "lords of the pale," as they were called, were abruptly ſummoned to aſſemble in that city. Suſpicions of treachery on the part of the Engliſh government, induced them to decline obedience to this requiſition. Their refuſal afforded a pretence, or ſomething like it, for the commencement, or rather for the continuation, of murder, within the pale. Sir Charles Coote was diſpatched to burn the village of Clontarf, which he did, at the ſame time aſſaſſinating ſixteen of the innocent, but helpleſs inhabitants. "Theſe orders," ſays Borlaſe, "were *excellently well executed.*" In the ſame week, another party of ſoldiers went from Dublin into the country. Fifty-ſix men, women, and children, affrighted at the fate of Clontarf, took boats, and went to ſea. The party purſued, ſeized, and threw them overboard. By an order from the parliament of England, dated the 30th of November, 1641, the lords juſtices were directed to publiſh offers of a general pardon, and theſe orders were repeated by Charles himſelf on the firſt of January, ſucceeding. This was not what their lordſhips wanted. The orders were diſobeyed; and, on the firſt of February following, the earl of Ormond, whoſe virtues have been ſo fondly, but ſo unjuſtly, applauded, was diſpatched, with a body of troops, into the county of Kildare. "He burnt Newcaſtle and Lyons," ſays his biographer, mr. Carte, "and gave up Naas to his ſoldiers to plunder; having ſent out parties to burn Caſtle Martin, Kilcullen bridge, and, in ſhort, all the country for *ſeventeen miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth*"

At Naas, one Higgins, a catholic prieſt, had ſurrendered himſelf to Ormond, ſaying that he had no concern in the rebellion; that he could bring ample proof of his innocence, and that he had even ſaved the lives of many Engliſhmen from the fury of the Iriſh. He was conducted to Dublin by Ormond, and committed to priſon, whence he was taken by ſir Charles Coote, and put to death, without farther ceremony. When Ormond complained of this affair to the lords juſtices, his remonſtrances were treated with contempt. Mr. White, catholic chaplain to the counteſs of Weſtmeath, was likewiſe murdered, in ſpite of Ormond's promiſe of protection. A ſeries of ſuch achievements, as was, no doubt, foreſeen and deſigned, drove the nobility and gentlemen of the pale to a ſtate of utter deſperation. They began, in great numbers, to join the rebels.

The inſurrection of Munſter commenced in the month of December, 1641. Some robberies had been committed in the county of Tipperary, and, among others, who were ſufferers, one mr. Kingſmill loſt ſome cows and ſheep. He was brother-in-law to ſir William St. Leger, lord preſident of the province. This magiſtrate, in a letter which is ſtill extant, dated on the 8th of November, 1641, had declared, that "*every thing was perfectly quiet in Munſter*, and that *there was no manner of appearance of any commotion.*" This robbery, however, was two valuable a pretence to be overlooked; and, in a few days after, he came into that part of the country with two troops of horſe. He began his operations by burning ſeveral houſes, and by the maſſacre of about thirty of the peaſantry, men and women, whom he diſpatched without trial, without provocation, and without reſiſtance. Lord Dunboyne, with ſeveral gentlemen of the country, aſſembled, and, in a ſubmiſſive tone, repreſented to St. Leger, the fatal conſequences of ſuch proceedings. His anſwer

was, that they were all rebels, and that he would not truſt one ſoul of them, but thought it more prudent *to hang the beſt of them**." As it was dangerous to remonſtrate, his auditors retired in ſilence. He next entered the county of Wexford, and every ſtep of his progreſs was marked with ſlaughter and devaſtation. "He gallantly purſued theſe rebels," ſays Temple; "after a long and tedious march, he came upon them unawares, and ſlew two hundred of them, beſides ſeveral whom he took priſoners and hanged." What degree of *gallantry* was requiſite for theſe exploits, we may judge from a paſſage in the letter of St. Leger himſelf, juſt quoted; in which, ſpeaking of ſome of the inſurgents, he ſays, that, "they were only a company of *poor*, *ragged*, *naked rogues*." It would be profaning the name of gallantry, to ſuppoſe, that the leaſt ſpark of it had ever glimmered in the boſom of ſuch a miſcreant.

Whatever might be the poverty of the inferior ranks, it is certain, that the wealth of the nation at large was very conſiderable. For the earl of Corke, in a letter addreſſed to the ſpeaker of the Engliſh houſe of commons, dated the 16th of Auguſt, 1642, relates, that his lordſhip had indicted eleven hundred perſons in that part of the iſland; and that if the Engliſh parliament choſe to proceed againſt them as outlaws, he could aſſure him, that their eſtates, at the beginning of the inſurrection, were worth upwards of two hundred thouſand pounds per annum. This ſum is equal to, at leaſt, eight hundred thouſand pounds, in the preſent ages. The proſpect of ſuch an immenſe plunder might have ſtaggered the integrity even of more honeſt men, than the immaculate diſciples of Cromwell. Among the perſons indicted were lord Dunboyne and lord Muſkerry. This laſt nobleman was married to a ſiſter of Ormond. At the commencement of the troubles, he had requeſted leave to raiſe a thouſand men at his own expenſe, in order to ſuppreſs the inſurrection. And, as it had been pretended, though falſely, that the Engliſh government at Dublin, were but ſcantily ſuppled with arms, he had offered to mortgage his eſtate for the purchaſe of what might be neceſſary for his troops. He only demanded, that the council of ſtate would promiſe to repay him the price of them, at the end of the ſervice, or ſuffer him to keep them as his own property. His propoſals were addreſſed to perſons, who dreaded nothing more than the ſuppreſſion of the revolt, before it had advanced to a plauſible maturity. Of this government, and of this outlaw, the ſentiments of all mankind muſt be uniform.

The ſame cauſes which had excited diſturbances in the other provinces of Ireland, impelled the people of Connaught into inſurrection. The commander of the fort of Galway, in particular, and lord Forbes, captain of a ſhip of war, in the harbour of that town, kept the whole country in alarm, by inceſſant outrages and murders. In this political tempeſt, the lords juſtices themſelves appear to have been diſtinguiſhed by ſuperior inhumanity and treachery. Sir John Read had been entruſted with letters for the king, by the nobility and gentry of the pale. The juſtices invited him to a friendly conference before he ſet out on his journey. He came to Dublin, was arreſted, and put to the rack. The chief queſtion with which they harraſſed him, was, whether the king had been privy to the rebellion? Patrick Barnwell, of Kilbrew, had ſurrendered himſelf to the earl of Ormond, and had ventured to come to Dublin, upon the ſafe-conduct of Parſons. He was alſo put to the torture. Immenſe numbers of people were apprehended, carried to Dublin, and treated with the moſt conſummate inſolence and barbarity. Three thouſand indictments were, in a ſhort time, put upon record againſt theſe miſerable victims. It appears, that Ormond, whoſe ſubſequent loyalty has been ſo warmly celebrated, condeſcended, at this dreadful criſis, to become a prompt emiſſary of oppreſſion. The conduct of the Engliſh ſoldiers was ſuch, that no perſon endued with humanity, could have

* Curry's Review, vol. I. p. 252.

manded them; yet Ormond made no ſcruple of acting as their general, while, under his eye, they committed cruelties worthy of Zingis or of Timour. To exterminate man woman, and child, was a frequent practice; and Sir Charles Coote would ſometimes order his Iriſh priſoners to blow in his piſtol, and then diſcharge it through their heads.

In the progreſs of this narrative, we feel a ſenſation unlike any other, of which we remember ourſelves to have been ſenſible. We are always tempted, on the peruſal of every new crime, to imagine that we have at laſt reached the climax of atrocity, while the ingenious tyranny of England inceſſantly ſtrikes us with ſome ſtill more flagrant example of guilt. The parliament of that kingdom outdid all theſe former achievements, in an act of the 8th of December, 1641, by which they declared, that "they would not give their conſent to *any toleration of the catholic religion in Ireland.*" This reſolution was equivalent to a bill for the extirpation of a million of people; a few weeks after, they voted the confiſcation of two millions and an half of acres of arable, meadow, and paſture land. Suitable to theſe meaſures, the lords juſtices publiſhed the moſt ſanguinary orders to the ſoldiers; and the whole iſland ſeemed to have been transformed into one immenſe ſlaughterhouſe. Compared with ſuch a tremendous maſs of miſery, the dungeons of the baſtille, or the proſcriptions of a Roman triumvirate, ſhrink into forgetfulneſs!

When Borlaſe and Parſons learned the deſign of confiſcating ſuch prodigious tracts of land, they, on the 11th of May, 1642, addreſſed the ſpeaker of the Engliſh houſe of commons, in a private letter*, expreſſing their hopes of a reaſonable ſhare of the booty: So that their rapacity, as individuals, was exactly on a level with the enormity of their official characters.

We have thus given a ſtatement of the origin of the rebellion in Ireland. We have been more full than is, in general, conſiſtent with the limits of this work, becauſe that period of the Iriſh hiſtory is but little known, and has been very generally miſunderſtood. We ſhall, therefore, only further add, that the conteſt was terminated by Cromwell and Ireton, in 1652, by a ſeries of confiſcations and maſſacres, which almoſt deſtroyed the race of the ancient natives. The landed property was almoſt entirely transferred to the conquerors. Cromwell reſerved for his own ſhare, the county of Tipperary. All the native Iriſh, who eſcaped the carnage, were commanded to retire into the county of Clare, and the province of Connaught, a province which had been almoſt reduced to a deſart. A certain day was fixed for their retreat, under pain of death. At the reſtoration of Charles the ſecond, ſome of the original proprietors were reſtored to their lands; but the number of theſe perſons was extremely ſmall.

The next remarkable event in the hiſtory of Ireland, was the civil war, which ſucceeded the revolution, in 1688. In March, 1689, the puſillanimous James II landed at Kinſale from Breſt. He was defeated by William, his ſon-in-law, in the battle of the Boyne. The war was continued for about a year longer, by the generals of James, who had, on his defeat, fled back to France. The capture of Limerick put an end to the war. The celebrated "articles," as they have been called, were ſubſcribed on the 3d of October, 1691. The principal of theſe articles were, that the Roman catholics ſhould exerciſe their religion in the ſame manner as in the reign of Charles the ſecond; that they ſhould enjoy the common privileges of ſubjects, being bound to take the oath of allegiance to the king, when required; and that they ſhould have a right to carry arms about their perſons, like other ſubjects.

In the reign of queen Anne, theſe conditions were gradually and perfidiouſly violated. At laſt, the Roman catholics were diſarmed. They could not purchaſe land. If one ſon abjured the catholic religion, he inherited the whole eſtate, though he was the

* Carte's Ormond, vol. I.

youngeſt. If he made ſuch abjuration, and turned *diſcoverer*, in the life-time of his father, he took poſſeſſion of the whole eſtate, his father remaining a penſioner to him; with many other reſtrictions equally abominable.

In 1698, mr. Molyneux publiſhed a pamphlet, entitled, "The caſe of Ireland being bound by acts of parliament in England, ſtated." This performance opened a controverſy, which was long and violent. A committee from the houſe of commons of England, was, on the 21ſt of May, 1698, appointed to enquire into the nature of mr. Molyneux's book; and, upon the report of the committee, the houſe paſſed ſome arbitrary reſolutions againſt the book, and preſented an addreſs to the king, in which they enlarged both on the book and its pernicious aſſertions, and on the dangerous tendency of ſome proceedings of the Iriſh parliament. They concluded with "aſſuring his majeſty of their ready concurrence and aſſiſtance, in a parliamentary way, to preſerve and maintain the dependence and ſubordination of Ireland to the imperial crown of that realm." The anſwer of William to this addreſs, was, "that he would take care, that what was complained of might be prevented and redreſſed, as the commons deſired."

Thus the political war between the two countries begun. In the year 1719, another public important caſe of controverſy occurred. It was the Engliſh houſe of lords, who interfered at this time. A cauſe, relative to an eſtate, was tried before the court of exchequer in Ireland, who gave a decree in favour of Maurice Anneſly againſt Heſter Sherlock. The houſe of lords in Ireland was appealed to: they reverſed the decree; and Heſter Sherlock was put in poſſeſſion of the eſtate. Maurice Anneſly applied to the houſe of lords, in England, for relief. The houſe, proceeding upon the principle that the peers of Ireland poſſeſſed no power of juriſdiction, confirmed the decree: and an order was ſent to the barons of the exchequer in Ireland, to cauſe the poſſeſſion of the eſtates to be reſtored to Maurice Anneſly; which order they complied with. Heſter Sherlock petitioned the houſe of peers in Ireland: they ordered three barons of the exchequer into cuſtody; and ſent a repreſentation of the caſe to George the firſt. This repreſentation was laid before the Engliſh houſe of peers, who, after addreſſing the king, to deſire that he would be pleaſed to confer ſome marks of his royal favour on the barons of the exchequer, framed a bill, declaratory of the ſubordination of Ireland to Britain, and annulling the appellate juriſdiction of the Iriſh houſe of peers. This bill was paſſed into a law.

Soon after, a circumſtance occurred, too remarkable not to be noticed. A ſcarcity of copper coin prevailed in Ireland. The Engliſh government, in order to remedy it, granted a certain ſchemer, of the name of Wood, a patent for coining halfpence and farthings for that kingdom, which was to continue fourteen years; and copper money was to be coined, purſuant to the patent, to the amount of 108,000l. A conſiderable quantity of ſuch copper coin was accordingly coined in England, and ſent to Ireland. It did not meet with a favourable reception. It was alledged, that its real value was greatly inferior to what it was made to paſs for. The parliament of Ireland addreſſed the crown, againſt the meaſure of ſending the coin; and, during their following receſs of two years, great complaints continued to be made on the ſubject both by individuals and by public corporations.

The queſtion continued to agitate the public mind, and to excite a very general ferment. It was Wood *verſus* Ireland, and Ireland *verſus* Wood. The baſeneſs of the halfpence was the public topic; but the manner of introducing, and the mode that had been adopted of ſupplying the kingdom with them, were, in fact, the real cauſes of the contention. In the mean time, the univerſal zeal againſt the halfpence increaſed. A majority of the towns addreſſed againſt them and their ruinous tendency: and a declaration was ſigned by the country gentlemen, forbidding their tenants to receive Wood's baſe copper coin.

At length the Iriſh politicians began to venture beyond thoſe cautious limits, which they had hitherto preſcribed to themſelves. Queſtions relative to the king's prerogative, and the ſubordination of the kingdom of Ireland, were publicly diſcuſſed. The Britiſh government now began to be out of temper; or rather they had been ſo a long while before, finding that the patent they had granted, and endeavoured to ſupport, had become uſeleſs, through the ſettled determination of all ranks of people againſt the halfpence. They took the opportunity of certain writings lately publiſhed, to ſhow their reſentment. They reſolved upon the perſecution of the authors; and the new lord lieutenant, the lord Carteret, who ſtill continued in England, was ordered to repair to the place of his government. Immediately after his arrival, a proclamation was iſſued, offering a reward of three hundred pounds for diſcovering the author of a pamphlet, entitled, the Drapier's Fourth letter, in which the queſtion of the dependency of the kingdom of Ireland had been examined with an unuſual degree of freedom. The author was generally underſtood to be dean Swift; but no proof could be had againſt him. The manuſcript copy, found in the printer's houſe, was in the hand of one of the Dean's footmen; and it had been brought, ſealed up in a paper, by an obſcure meſſenger, to whom it had been delivered one evening, through a window, by an unknown perſon. In defect of the author, the printer and his wife were impriſoned; and a bill of indictment was prepared againſt the printer.——The grand jury, to their eternal honour, would not find the bill. The lord chief juſtice of the king's bench diſcharged them in a paſſion. A ſecond grand jury was empannelled. But here matters took a turn which the Britiſh government, and the officers of the crown in Ireland had not expected. The grand jury, inſtead of finding the bill againſt the printer, made, on the 28th of November, 1724, a preſentment, importing that Wood's halfpence were a fraudulent impoſition, and acknowledging their gratitude for the ſervices of all thoſe patriots who had been zealous in detecting them.

Matters were thus brought to a very ſerious ſituation. On the part of Britain, to continue to ſupport the patent, and take farther ſteps for enforcing the circulation of the halfpence, were now dangerous meaſures. Some ſteps of that kind had already been taken, by means of the report of the Britiſh privy council. The patent was declared, in the report, to be legal and obligatory, and a juſt and reaſonable exerciſe of his majeſty's royal prerogative; all the officers and judges in the kingdom were alſo commanded to countenance and aſſiſt the patent. To endeavour now to purſue the ſame plan any further, was not unlikely to be attended with ſome eventful cataſtrophe. The ſending a few more barrels of halfpence to Cork or Dublin, might have been followed by events of the very ſame nature, as thoſe which have ſince attended the arrival of the tea at Boſton. Matters ſtood in Ireland, at the period we are ſpeaking of, in a ſituation ſomewhat ſimilar to thoſe of North America, in the year 1773. However, the ſtorm ſubſided on the revocation of Wood's patent.

In the years 1751 and 1753, further conteſts took place. The diſputes were this time with the crown. The ſubject was an unappropriated ſum of money, remaining in the Iriſh treaſury, after the expenſes of the government were paid. Whoſe property was that money? who was to diſpoſe of it; the crown, or the Iriſh parliament? Theſe were the queſtions.

The crown regarded the money as its property; and, as it was not then wanted, it being a time of peace, the duke of Dorſet, then lord lieutenant, acquainted the houſe of commons, that he was commanded by George the ſecond to inform them, that he would conſent that the money, remaining in the treaſury, ſhould be applied to the diſcharge of their national debt. The houſe paſſed a bill accordingly; but avoided noticing the king's previous declaration. The bill was tranſmitted to England, and was returned, that is, aſſented to, with the additional mention, however,

of the king's preparatory leave and conſent: the addition was ſubmitted to, for this time, and the bill accepted in the Iriſh parliament.

The queſtion continued, nevertheleſs, to be warmly diſcuſſed among the politicians, till the following ſeſſion, that is, during two years. It was called the queſtion about the previous conſent: It was, in reality, about the property of the money remaining, as a ſurplus, in the treaſury. When the parliament again met, in the year 1752, the lord lieutenant made the ſame declaration as he had two years before. The commons, in appropriating the new ſurplus money, again avoided taking notice of the king's previous licence: the mention of it was, as formerly, added by the Engliſh privy council. The Iriſh commons, at this time, rejected the bill. The crown then with a ſtrong hand, aſſerted its claim to the ſurplus money; and the king, by his letter, took it out of the treaſury.

In the year 1768, dr. Lucas moved, in the houſe of commons, for a bill to limit the duration of parliament. Before that period, parliaments uſed to be continued by prorogations during a whole reign: the ſame members, of courſe, preſerving their places. The privy council of Ireland conſented to tranſmit the bill to England; by which the duration of parliament was to be limited to ſeven years. The bill was returned with the addition of one year, and the Iriſh parliaments, from that period, have been octennial.

About this time, the peace of the north of Ireland was diſturbed by a numerous body of the lower claſſes of people denominated ſteel-boys, who, feeling themſelves much aggrieved by the mode adopted by an abſentee landlord for reſetting his eſtate, (which was very conſiderable,) were, in their diſtreſs, excited to many acts of violence and outrage, for which numbers were condemned and executed. Theſe examples, with the exertions of the military, extinguiſhed the commotion. But the cauſe from whence it aroſe, produced further effects, highly injurious to the country; as, in a ſhort time, many thouſands of its inhabitants emigrated to America.

The queſtions of the commercial reſtraints of Ireland, and of the interference of the Britiſh parliament in Iriſh concerns, had continued to be diſcuſſed only in the ſpeeches of politicians, or in the writings of individuals. Sir William Petty firſt deſcanted, in a general manner, on theſe queſtions. Mr. Molyneux followed him: though he touched very ſuperficially on the ſubject of trade, and devoted his chief attention to the general queſtion of conſtitution. Dean Swift in his Drapier's letters, entered fully into both ſubjects. And, in a ſubſequent time, dr. Charles Lucas debated the two queſtions, in his writings and addreſſes to the people.

But no ſteps of a national and general kind were entered upon, in order to effect the repeal of thoſe laws, by which the trade and conſtitution of Ireland were reſtrained. There was no proſpect of ſucceſs. It was concluded, that the Britiſh legiſlature would defend, with the utmoſt degree of energy, as well thoſe acts which they had paſſed, as their claim to continue to paſs ſimilar acts in future. The aſſumed prerogative of the crown had, upon certain occaſions, been diſputed in Ireland, in the courſe of this century; but acts of the entire Britiſh legiſlature had never been oppoſed.

In the year 1778, the meaſure of public diſtreſs, ariſing from a combination of cauſes, being full, united all ranks in their endeavours for obtaining the removal of thoſe reſtraints, by which the trade of Ireland was embarraſſed. The public diſcontents were manifeſted, with ſymptoms very different from thoſe which had attended the complaints of any former period.

In the parliament which had met about the cloſe of the year 1777, the diſadvantages, under which the trade of Ireland lay, had been animadverted upon with a conſiderable degree of warmth. After the adjournment, the ſubject attracted an un-

common degree of public attention, and became a general topic of diſcuſſion. Melancholy pictures preſented themſelves throughout the kingdom, of the deplorable condition of the country, of the fallen price of its lands and rents, of the ruinous ſtate of its manufactures, and the ſtagnation of trade and credit. All theſe circumſtances of public diſtreſs were now juſtly repreſented, as proceeding almoſt wholly from thoſe reſtraints, which had been laid on the trade of Ireland by the Britiſh legiſlature.

Many cauſes of national complaint exiſted at this time.—The war with America, to which a conſiderable quantity of linen uſed to be exported, had deprived the nation of that important market. That general ſtagnation of trade and manufactures, which is the uſual conſequence of war and national difficulties, was experienced in Ireland.

The embargo, which, in 1776, had been laid upon the exportation of proviſions from Ireland, was alſo attended with deſtructive conſequences: "it was ſent as a curſe, and operated as a peſtilence," and excited the moſt general and well-founded complaints; as it was well known, that it was laid to enable Engliſh proviſion-contractors to amaſs princely fortunes on the ruin of thouſands of people, who, having no other market or reſource, were forced to accept whatever price was offered for the proviſions by the agents of theſe Engliſh contractors!

There were other conſiderations, beſides commercial ones, which concurred in rendering the complaints of the people of Ireland, concerning the reſtraints on their trade, ſo energetic and univerſal at this period, and which induced them to unite in a general effort to have them repealed. Theſe reſtraints had been impoſed by the deſpotiſm of England, by a parliament reſiding in a different country, and which, at the ſame time, claimed a right of abſolute, indefinate legiſlation, that is to ſay, of tyranny over them.

Commercial and political conſiderations were blended in the complaints of the people of Ireland. Thoſe prohibitions on their trade and navigation, which had been expreſſed, modified, explained, or confirmed in fifty or ſixty acts of the Britiſh legiſlature, were monuments of ſlaviſh dependence, and of provincial ſubordination to a foreign government, which, upon every occaſion, ſacrificed the general intereſts of the kingdom to thoſe of the moſt inſignificant town in England, and, frequently, as in the caſe of embargoes, for the advantage of worthleſs individuals, the minions of a Britiſh miniſter. The parliament of that kingdom, in their intercourſe with Ireland, had evidently availed themſelves of the *right of the ſtrongeſt*; they had both claimed and granted a patent to themſelves, of the moſt valuable branches of trade and manufactures at her expenſe, at the ſame time that they made the patent perpetual.

An important change had alſo, at the ſame time, taken place in the circumſtances of Britain and her parliament. After being weakened, during ſeveral years, by violent contentions at home, ſhe had ſeen her colonies revolt. She had been foiled in her attempt to recover her dominion over them. She was involved in an expenſive war with thoſe colonies. France and Spain had joined in the conteſt; and ſhe was now engaged in defence of her own coaſt.

The government of Ireland, ſeeing the criſis to which popular indignation was riſing, repreſented to the Britiſh miniſters, that ſomething muſt be done in order to allay the growing ferment; and the friends of that kingdom in the Engliſh parliament, feeling her ſituation ſtill more ſenſibly, brought forward ſome propoſitions, in the ſeſſion of 1775, for freeing her trade, which ended in ſome trivial relaxations on her intercourſe with Africa and the Weſt-Indies. In the next ſeſſion, the ſubject was revived by lord North, and ably ſupported; but the trading jealouſy of Manchester, Glaſgow, and other towns of Britain, roſe to ſuch a height, and was ſo ſucceſsfully employed, that the advantages intended for Ireland, were re-

duced to the kind grant, of permiſſion to cultivate tobacco and hemp. This was ſo glaring an inſult over the public diſtreſs, and ſuch an aggravation of injuries, that the people perceived what they might have diſcovered long before, that their freedom and proſperity were to be derived from their own exertions only.

Reſolutions and aſſociations againſt the uſe of Engliſh manufactures were entered into, till the obnoxious laws of Britain ſhould be repealed.

It may juſtly be expected, that we ſhould give ſome account of the volunteers, who, at this time, began to act an important part in the hiſtory of Ireland. In conſequence of the war with America, the coaſts of Ireland, in 1777, had been inſulted by privateers. And ſuch was the weakneſs of government, that the mayor of Belfaſt, having requeſted a body of troops for the defence of the coaſts, was anſwered, that only half a troop of horſe, and half a troop of invalids, could be ſpared for that ſervice. The inhabitants of that town have long and juſtly been diſtinguiſhed by their public ſpirit. They immediately entered into an aſſociation for the protection of the country. A few volunteer companies were taught diſcipline; and a paſſion for acquiring the uſe of arms ſpread, with great rapidity, from one end of the iſland to the other. Men of the higheſt conſequence in the nation were proud to be enrolled in their number; and perſons of independent circumſtances conſidered it as an honour to appear in their ranks. By the end of the year 1778, their numbers extended to thirty thouſand men. Though ſubject to no controul in their tour of military duty, but inclination, the whole body were diſtinguiſhed by an unexceptionable and moſt exemplary behaviour. They were perfectly obedient to diſcipline; they reſtrained the irregular, ſuppreſſed diſorders, and maintained the execution of the laws with unanimity and with force.

On the 12th of October, 1779, the parliament of Ireland met. The eyes of the public were now turned towards them, in anxious expectation of their determinations and proceedings; the ſpirit and the virtue of the people had even communicated themſelves to the legiſlature, who completely adopted the views and political wiſhes of their conſtituents. The addreſs which was voted by the commons, to be delivered, as an anſwer to the ſpeech from the throne, by which the ceſſion was opened, contained the following expreſſions: "*We beg leave to repreſent to your majeſty, that it is not by temporary expedients, but by a free trade alone, that this nation is now to be ſaved from impending ruin.*" The houſe of lords concurred in expreſſing the ſame ſentiment: "*We think it our duty to repreſent to your majeſty, that a free trade is abſolutely neceſſary to enable this nation to ſupport your majeſty at this important period, with exertions ſuited to its loyalty, and to preſerve it from utter ruin.*"

A general expectation of redreſs was now diffuſed through the kingdom. Limiting the bill of ſupply was generally eſteemed the only ſure ground of hope to compel England to do juſtice to Ireland. When this point came to be conſidered in parliament, it was carried by a majority of the commons. A ſix months' money-bill, therefore, paſſed both houſes, and was tranſmitted to England, to which the neceſſity of the times forced the miniſtry to aſſent.—Such was the ſtate of affairs in Ireland during the receſs of the Britiſh parliament. It met in December, 1779. Lord North immediately gave notice, that, in leſs than a week, he would move for a committee of the whole houſe, to take the affairs of Ireland into conſideration. Accordingly, on the 13th of December, he brought forward his propoſitions relative to that country. The intent was to repeal the laws which prohibited the exportation of Iriſh manufactures, made of, or mixed with, wool and wool flocks, from Ireland to any part of Europe; to repeal ſo much of the act of George II. as prohibited the importation of glaſs into Ireland, except of Britiſh manufacture, or to export glaſs from thence; to permit Ireland to export and import commodities to and from the Britiſh colonies in America, and the Weſt-Indies, and her ſettlements on the coaſt

of Africa, ſubject to ſuch regulations and reſtrictions as ſhould be impoſed by the parliament of Ireland. The bills for this purpoſe were paſſed into laws.

The volunteers ſtill continued to increaſe. The reviews, in 1781, were more numerous than the year before. At Belfaſt, there were reviewed more than 5000 men, whoſe martial appearance was heightened by a train of 13 pieces of cannon, purchaſed at their private expenſe, which they brought into the field.

In Autumn, the combined fleets of France and Spain appeared in the channel, with an intention, as was ſuppoſed, to invade Ireland. The moment that this intelligence arrived, the volunteers aſſembled, and, from all quarters made an offer of their aſſiſtance to government. They did duty in ſome garriſon towns, in place of the ſoldiers, who had been withdrawn to more diſtant parts of the kingdom: for their alacrity on this occaſion, they received the thanks of both houſes of parliament.

The foppiſh lord Carliſle, who arrived as lord lieutenant, on the 23d of December, 1780, having employed a greater profuſion of bribes and other means of corruption than any of his predeceſſors, had the addreſs, moſt effectually, to direct parliament; that which met the following Winter under his auſpices, did, in every inſtance coincide with, and often anticipate the wiſhes of government. They ſet at defiance the voice of their conſtituents. All the attempts which were made by the patriotic members to obtain a repeal of the perpetual mutiny bill and Poynings' act, every effort in favour of the rights of the people, were wholly ineffectual. This intolerable treatment roufed the national reſentment, and procured a glorious exertion which emancipated the country. It originated with the officers of the ſouthern battalion of the Armagh regiment of volunteers, who, at a meeting, on the 28th December, 1781, entered into ſeveral ſpirited reſolutions, and particularly requeſted a meeting of delegates from every volunteer corps in the province of Ulſter, to be held in Dungannon, on the 15th of February following, to deliberate on the alarming ſituation of public affairs.—The novelty and boldneſs of the meaſure aſtoniſhed the public; government and its friends uſed every means to prevent the intended meeting. Whilſt the minds of men were thus variouſly affected, the important 15th of February arrived. Repreſentatives from 143 corps attended at Dungannon; they agreed to a ſeries of ſpirited reſolutions declaratory of the rights of their country, and voted an addreſs of thanks to the minority in parliament who had ſupported their conſtitutional rights.

The reſolutions and addreſs, which were equally diſtinguiſhed by ſpirit, by wiſdom, and by moderation, were univerſally admired; they were adopted by the volunteers throughout the kingdom with unanimity and zeal; committees of correſpondence were formed in every province; and the national committee ſerved to concentrate the ſentiments of the volunteers from all parts of the iſland. Immediately after the Dungannon meeting, an aſſociation was formed of the nobility, freeholders, and inhabitants of the county of Armagh, wherein they aſſerted the right of the nation to be governed by ſuch laws only as ſhould be enacted by the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, pledging themſelves to each other, and to their country, to reſiſt the execution of any ſtatutes, but ſuch as ſhould derive authority from ſuch a parliament, and to ſupport, with their lives and fortunes, this their ſolemn declaration.

The hiſtorian who ſits down to write with a ſtrict regard to truth, muſt, in almoſt every ſtage of his progreſs, detail facts revolting to the feelings of his readers, and diſhonourable to human nature. Notwithſtanding the determination and unanimity of the Iriſh nation, and the juſtice of their cauſe, it is more than probable that they would have been defeated in their attempts to free themſelves from Britiſh uſurpation, but for one of the many changes which turbulence and faction ſo often produce in the cabinet of the ſiſter kingdom, *as ſhe is called.* Lord North and his coadjutors were obliged to reſign their places in the miniſtry. This render-

ed a change in the adminiſtration of Ireland inevitable. From this moment, lord Carliſle, whom we have juſt ſeen ruling every thing in that kingdom with a high hand, determined to embarraſs his ſucceſſor as much as poſſible. He immediately diſmiſſed out of pay, the venal and abandoned majority whom he had hired in parliament, and who had enabled him to carry through every meaſure, however deſtructive, however obnoxious. Theſe unprincipled men, hungering after the plunder of the country, and diſappointed in their expectations, commenced *patriots* for the day. They united themſelves with the real friends of Ireland---and the will of parliament, being now nearly unanimous, became irreſiſtible. On the truth of this circumſtance, which is probably new to moſt of our readers, we are ſatisfied to reſt the character of this work. And here we will, once for all, requeſt, that before our readers condemn this publication for ſtatements different from what they have been accuſtomed to, they will conſult the authorities from which we have drawn our facts. The heart-rending accounts of Iriſh ſufferings, during the various rebellions, as they are ſtiled, which took place in that kingdom, we have taken principally from dr. Curry's review of the civil wars of Ireland, a work, without the peruſal of which, no man can attain any tolerable idea of the hiſtory of that moſt oppreſſed of nations!

The duke of Portland being appointed lieutenant, in place of lord Carliſle, arrived in the beginning of April, 1782; and ſhortly after ſent a meſſage to parliament, expreſſing the concern of George the third, that diſcontents and jealouſies prevailed among the Iriſh, and recommending ſuch a final adjuſtment as might give mutual ſatisfaction to Britain and Ireland.

The commons replied in a long addreſs, in which they ſtated the grievances of Ireland. In conſequence of this, and another addreſs of the ſame nature, from the houſe of lords, the Engliſh declaratory act of George the firſt was repealed, and a variety of acts were paſſed, advantageous to the liberties of Ireland. Among theſe, ſeveral deſpotic reſtrictions upon the Roman catholics were repealed. In this criſis mr. Grattan acquired uncommon popularity, by his glorious and ſucceſsful exertions. He was rewarded by parliament, with a preſent of fifty thouſand pounds.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham occaſioned another change in the Britiſh adminiſtration; and, in conſequence, lord Temple was, on the 31ſt of July, 1782, appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland. He was ſucceeded, in 1783, by lord Northington, the partiſan of a new Engliſh miniſtry, well known under the title of the *coalition*.

The houſe of commons, in Ireland, is conſtituted on the ſame abſurd and corrupt principles as that of England. In a debate laſt winter, in the parliament of that country, mr. Grattan remarked, that two hundred members of the houſe of commons were elected by an hundred individuals. The whole body conſiſts but of three hundred and twenty. Another member, on a late occaſion, mentioned a ſaying of James the firſt, when he was queſtioned about the manufacture of rotten boroughs. "What is the matter how many I make? *The more, the merrier.*" On account of this and other abuſes, a convention of delegates from the national volunteers aſſembled at Dublin, on the 10th of November, 1783, and drew up a number of ſpirited reſolutions; but parliament, having declared their determination to defend their own privileges, the affair came to nothing, and ſeveral motions to the ſame effect, which were made in the houſe of commons, had the ſame fate. Such abortive attempts at reformation, reflect no honor on the ſpirit of the nation, which evaporates in mere reſolves. Another ſquabble having happened in the cabinet of St. James's, Northington was recalled, and, on the 24th of February, 1784, the duke of Rutland, the creature of an adverſe faction, ſucceeded him.

In order to intereſt every part of the community in the renovation of the conſtitution, and to give an acceſſion of ſtrength to the democracy, an idea of extending

the elective franchiſe to Roman catholics was very generally entertained; and, at an aggregate meeting of the citizens of Dublin, held on the 7th of June, 1784, amongſt other reſolutions, expreſſive of the public opinion, was one, which warmly recommended this idea to their countrymen. To build a liberal ſyſtem of freedom on its genuine principles, was a deſign worthy of the friends of liberty and reform. To hold up an example to Europe and the univerſe of the abolition of thoſe penalties and proſcriptions which have made ſo many rebels without finding them ſo; and of introducing equality and confidence among men of oppoſite tenets, were motives to animate the mind of every man, ſenſible to fame, to general happineſs, and to virtue.

On the 21ſt of June, the citizens again aſſembled, and agreed upon an addreſs to the people of Ireland, and a petition to the king, praying for the diſſolution of a parliament which had oppoſed, with ſuch pertinacious obſtinacy, every reaſonable requiſition of their conſtituents. The proceedings, in other parts of the kingdom, were in general conformity with thoſe of the metropolis.

The earl of Charlemont had been, ſince the commencement of volunteering, its principal head and leader. He was called on, as uſual, to review the volunteers of Ulſter, aſſembled at Belfaſt, on the 12th of July, 1784; and, on that occaſion, the officers preſented him with an addreſs, in which, among other political obſervations, ſuggeſted by the circumſtances of the times, they expreſſed their ſatisfaction at the decay of thoſe prejudices, which had ſo long involved the nation in feuds and diſunion; a diſunion which, by limiting the rights of ſuffrage, and circumſcribing the number of their citizens, had, in a great degree, created and foſtered the ariſtocratic tyranny, the ſource of every grievance, and againſt which the public voice now unanimouſly exclaimed.

But this ſuperannuated and illiberal peer proved, by his anſwer, how ill founded had been the public opinion reſpecting him. After acknowledging the merits and the oppreſſion of the catholics, he inconſiſtently expreſſed the moſt marked diſapprobation of allowing them any participation in the election franchiſe, although the moſt puny politician ſaw that the fate of Ireland depended upon union. This anſwer was either the effect of inveterate bigotry, or of miniſterial gold. But whatever might have been its cauſe, its influence was immediate; and it was employed with wide and malignant effect, by the enemies of parliamentary reform, to foment diſcord, and excite alarms in the minds of its friends. Theſe endeavours were, alas! but too ſucceſsful; a new principle was excited in the public mind; and the ultimate miſcarriage of parliamentary reformation is principally imputable to the advantage taken of this unfortunate oppoſition of ſentiment.

On the 20th September, the citizens of Dublin aſſembled at the Tholſel, to chooſe their repreſentatives for the approaching meeting of a congreſs. On this occaſion, mr. ſheriff Kirkpatrick read a letter, written to him by the attorney-general, threatening him with an official proſecution in the court of king's bench, if he ſhould hold or preſide at a meeting held for ſuch a purpoſe. The aſſembly accordingly broke up, but met in a few days after, at the Weaver's hall, and, having placed ſir Edward Newenham in the chair, they chooſe their repreſentatives, and paſſed ſeveral reſolutions, declaratory of their right to aſſemble and deliberate for the redreſs of grievances.

The oppoſition of adminiſtration to the purſuits of the people, was neither to be reſtrained within the bounds of law, nor repreſſed from apprehenſion of their reſentment; it was violent, unconſtitutional, and oppreſſive. The high ſheriff of the county of Dublin, mr. Reilly, was proſecuted by attachment in the king's bench, and ſentenced to fine and impriſonment (29th November, 1784), for having convened his county to elect repreſentatives for the purpoſe above mentioned;

and ſimilar proceedings were inſtituted againſt magiſtrates in other parts of the kingdom, for the like offences, as they were denominated. About this time, on occaſion of inflicting the puniſhment of whipping on a man, who had been convicted of ſome unlawful exceſſes, a few ſtones were thrown; upon which the military fired, and ſeveral innocent perſons were killed and wounded. One of the magiſtrates was much and deſervedly blamed for the ſanguinary orders given by him to the ſoldiery on that day.

During ſeveral months, the fervour of the public mind was unexampled; and even the theatre became a ſcene of one of its moſt ardent ebullitions. The duke of Rutland's appearance there, was attended with the moſt clamorous execrations, and the interruptions of the drama ſubſided but with the early diſmiſſal of the audience. When it is conſidered of how many favourite objects the people have been diſappointed, in how many inſtances they were inſulted by the brow of power, and grappled by the arm of the law; that the rights of juries were violated; that the exploded doctrines of the days of tyranny were revived, and attachments aſſumed the colour of legality, and obtained the acquieſcence of parliament; when theſe cauſes of indignation are conſidered, in the calm hour of unruffled reflection, it will not excite much wonder in the diſpaſſionate mind, if a people, by nature warm and full of ſenſibility, ſhould ruſh into the moſt intemperate expreſſions of their contempt and abhorrence.

On the 20th of January, 1785, a congreſs, for the purpoſe of obtaining a parliamentary reform, aſſembled in Dublin. The meeting was numerous and reſpectable. Deputies appeared from the ſeveral parts of the kingdom. They adopted the plan of the convention of 1783; but the fate of the buſineſs in parliament was the ſame as formerly.

In February following, the two houſes met, and the duke of Rutland's ſecretary introduced ten propoſitions for a commercial adjuſtment between the two kingdoms. They were agreed to, and ſent over to Britain. The clamours of the manufacturers of that country, their luſt for monopoly, and their unaccomodating prejudices, were exerted on theſe propoſitions, which, in their progreſs through the Britiſh parliament were entirely changed. They were returned, thus altered, to the parliament of Ireland, in the form of twenty propoſitions. Adminiſtration ſtrained every nerve to force them through the houſe of commons, and it is an object of ſurpriſe, that, on the queſtion for leave to bring in the neceſſary bills, they ſucceeded only by a majority of 127 to 108. This majority was ſo ſmall, that the bills were withdrawn two days after and ſunk into final oblivion. This event gave great ſatisfaction in both kingdoms.

Ireland has long been diſtinguiſhed by the miſery of the inferior claſſes of its peaſantry, and by thoſe tumults, which are the natural offſpring of oppreſſion and deſpair. It is evidently repugnant to the plaineſt dictates of juſtice, to force a perſon, beſides contributing to the ſupport of his own clergy, to pay tythes to a clergyman, whoſe doctrines he utterly diſapproves. In Ireland, the conſequences of this ſyſtem of eccleſiaſtical rapine, have been more than commonly deſtructive. Three fourths of the nation conſiſt of Roman catholics; and of the remainder only a ſmall proportion profeſs the religion of what is called the eſtabliſhed church. Immenſe ſums are therefore raiſed as ſalaries to clergymen, while there are few individuals within their reſpective diſtricts, who ever have heard, or ever will ſubmit to hear, a ſingle ſermon from them. The exaction of tythes is almoſt entirely directed againſt agriculture. The grazier is exempted; and from the operation of various cauſes, it has hitherto happened in Ireland, that the graziers are commonly proteſtants, while the farmers, thoſe who pay tythes, are principally Roman catholics. They are, in general, alſo a much more indigent rank of men, than the graziers. Here, then, is an example of the very utmoſt exceſs of iniquity. The catholic peaſant, who is

too often in an extreme ſtate of poverty, pays for the ſupport of an hierarchy, which he can remember by nothing but the blighting ills which it diſpenſes. He has likewiſe to defray the expence of his own paſtor. The grazier, on the other hand, who is a proteſtant, and rich, or in tolerable circumſtances, pays nothing for the ſupport of a proteſtant prieſthood, of whoſe church he is frequently a member. The enormous inequality of landed property in Ireland, is another ſource of calamity. The character of landlords in that country we have already noticed. Thus various and ſingular circumſtances of infelicity, contribute to place the great body of the Iriſh peaſantry in a ſtate of inceſſant vexation and diſtreſs.

The above explanation will account for the diſturbances, which, at this time, occurred in the province of Munſter. A detail of the proceedings that enſued would be undeſerving of its room in this work. The tranſactions of parliament were of no great importance. On the 25th of October, 1787, the duke of Rutland, lord lieutenant, died the victim of intemperance.—His ſucceſſor was the marquis of Buckingham.—In February, 1789, this nobleman informed the parliament of Ireland, that George the third had been afflicted with a ſevere malady. On this intelligence, both houſes concurred in reſolutions for an addreſs to the prince of Wales, requeſting him to aſſume the government during the illneſs of his father, with the title of PRINCE REGENT OF IRELAND. This meaſure was brought forward by a party in oppoſition, who expected to ſhare the emoluments of the new adminiſtration. The lord lieutenant refuſed to tranſmit this addreſs, and two peers and four members of the houſe of commons were entruſted with it. The delegates arrived in London ſomewhat too late. The king had recovered; but the prince of Wales returned his warmeſt thanks, and, we dare affirm, with much ſincerity, to the delegates, for their readineſs to put him in poſſeſſion of a kingdom.

This ſeſſion was diſtinguiſhed by an act of parliament, which was ſeriouſly intended to promote the induſtry and happineſs of the kingdom. Two hundred thouſand pounds were ordered to be raiſed for carrying on inland navigation, at the rate of twenty-five thouſand pounds per annum. Among theſe undertakings, the royal canal from the north ſide of Dublin, has already made a conſiderable progreſs. It is intended to open a communication with the Atlantic ocean, which would be of the utmoſt advantage to the whole iſland.

Since the affair of the regency, no remarkable event happened in the annals of Ireland, till ſometime previous to the commencement of the preſent war with France. The revolution in the latter country had naturally kindled the hopes of every other oppreſſed people, and the writings of mr. Paine, and others, being peruſed with avidity by all ranks, did not fail to excite and embitter the popular indignation. Meaſures were ſoon taken to check this ſpirit. Government began, as uſual in ſuch caſes, with editors of newſpapers. We have lately ſeen in an Iriſh newſpaper, a liſt of about ſixteen proprietors of publications of this kind, who are either in jail, or at large upon bail, to ſtand trial at the inſtance of the attorney general. The volunteers have been generally diſarmed, and a variety of arbitrary acts of parliament have been paſſed, all tending to rivet the chains of tyranny. A ſet of oppreſſed wretches, under the title of Defenders, having excited diſturbances, were proſecuted, tried, and hanged with uncommon diſpatch. This buſineſs went on at Dundalk. Some perſons were ſentenced at ſix o'clock in the evening, and hanged by candle light, within two hours after. The judges being fatigued with inceſſant employment, a counſellor at the bar was ſent for, by an expreſs, from Dublin, to act as judge for the time; a meaſure which ſounds ſomewhat ſtrangely. At the ſame time it was generally believed, that government had employed emiſſaries to commence theſe commotions, for the ſake of an opportunity to employ the regular troops for diſperſing them, and thus to obtain a pretence for increaſing the ſtanding army, and making what is emphatically termed, a ſtrong government. A ſociety, en-

titled "The United Iriſhman," formed at Dublin, has been treated with ſome ſeverity. Their preſident, mr. Simon Butler, and their ſecretary, mr. Oliver Bond, have been committed to Newgate for ſix months, and fined in five hundred pounds each, for publications ſaid to be ſeditious. The patriots have at laſt ſeen their error, in wiſhing to exclude the Roman catholics from the advantages of a better government. To unite all ſects in oppoſition to Engliſh and domeſtic deſpotiſm, was the avowed deſign of the "United Iriſhmen." A bill, by way of ſoothing the Roman catholics, has even been ſuffered to paſs in parliament, for granting them leave to vote at elections for repreſentatives in that aſſembly. This conceſſion has been regarded as of the utmoſt importance by all parties, but in fact is of none. Two thirds of the members of parliament are either ſelf-elected, or purchaſe their ſeats, and carry every queſtion; ſo that election is altogether a farce, and not worth the expence which it coſts the country. In the city of Belfaſt, various inſults have been committed on the inhabitants, by the troops quartered there for the expreſs purpoſe of preventing a revolt. The houſe of peers have inſtituted a committee for enquiring into ſeditious practices, and they have already committed to priſon ſome perſons on very queſtionable grounds. Their adverſaries pronounce that they are at once legiſlators, judges, and parties. An advertiſement to this effect, was, in March laſt, printed and poſted up in the ſtreets of Dublin, and one copy was affixed on the door of the houſe of peers. An hundred pounds were offered, but in vain, to diſcover the author of this publication. A French vintner near South George's ſtreet in Dublin fixed up a ſign-board, on which was repreſented the ſtorming of the baſtile. After it had appeared in peace for ſome months, the proprietor, by a meſſage from the caſtle, was, in Spring, 1793, compelled to pull it down. It was regarded by the friends of government as an emblem of ſedition.

The war that has lately taken place, has produced the moſt alarming conſequences. By the laſt accounts from Dublin, at leaſt ſix or eight thouſand manufacturers, in that city alone, and their families, have, in the literal ſenſe of the word, been reduced to beggary. The price of linen cloth is ſaid to have fallen fifty per cent. but this we cannot abſolutely affirm to be true. Meetings of the magiſtrates and others have been held for the ſake of affording relief, and the lord lieutenant has beſtowed for that purpoſe, the *vaſt ſum* of an hundred pounds ſterling! Commerce is nearly annihilated. In March laſt, the weekly fees of entry at the cuſtom houſe hardly diſcharged the ſalaries of the clerks. Since that time, matters are infinitely worſe; and every veſſel which arrives from Ireland, announces the progreſs of univerſal bankruptcy—a bankruptcy created by a war in which the Iriſh have no intereſt, and in which they have been involved without their conſent, as has occured ſo often before, by their fatal ſubjection to England, a ſubjection which has, for a period of five hundred years, operated as the moſt dreadful ſcourge to an iſland as well calculated to promote the happineſs of its inhabitants, as perhaps any equal extent of country under the canopy of heaven.

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pays-Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect to Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 360, Breadth 260 } between { 49 and 54 North lat. / 77 and 82 East long. from Philadelphia.

They are bounded by the German sea on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the British channel, West.

We shall treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: first, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of HOLLAND: secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150, Breadth nearly the same. } between { 51 and 54 North lat. / 78 and 82 East long. from Philadelphia.

The following is the most satisfactory account that we meet with, of their geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands.

United Provinces.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Population.	Chief cities.
Overyssel	1,900	66	50		Deventer
Holland	1,800	84	52	98,000	AMSTERDAM
Guelderland	986	50	40		Nimeguen
Friesland	810	44	34	140,000	Lieuwarden
Zutphen	644	37	33		Zutphen
Groningen	540	45	37	100,000	Groningen
Utrecht	450	41	22	75,000	Utrecht
Zealand	303	29	24	85,000	Middleburg
Texel and other islands	113				
Total	7,546				

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabitants has gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised and still support with incredible labour and expense. The air of the United Provinces is, therefore, foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and the harbours are frozen. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country; which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and the brightness and cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. There are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple,

has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which, in that country, ſerve as high-roads, are, in the ſummer months, almoſt as offenſive as ſtagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but, by draining their bogs and marſhes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheeſe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber uſed there, and indeed moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than thoſe of any other nation in Europe. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return in the February following. The river-fiſh are much the ſame as thoſe of England; but their ſea-fiſh are generally larger, owing perhaps, to their fiſhing in deeper water. With reſpect to their fiſh, no nation in the world is more delicate. The greateſt care is taken to preſerve them alive. A burgher of Amſterdam would diſdain to taſte fiſh, that had not come in that ſtate into his kitchen. No herrings viſit their coaſts; but they have many excellent oyſter-beds about the iſlands of the Texel, producing very large and well-taſted oyſters. Notwithſtanding all the inconveniences of their country, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and comforts of life, and upon as eaſy terms, as any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The ſeven United Provinces are, perhaps, the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in the lands of the generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands.* The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is ſo much interſected, require unceaſing labour to keep them in repair. Their principal food they draw from the ſea by their herring-fiſheries; for they diſpoſe of the chief part of their more valuable fiſh to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind. They are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. They have never effected a change of government, but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they find their intereſt at ſtake; witneſs their ſea wars with England and France. In the memorable battle off the Dogger bank, in the laſt war, their intrepid conduct fully proved, that

* Mons. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of the United Provinces at 2,500,000; but mr. Tempeleman estimates them only at 2 000,000; which, in proportion to the population of England, is more than six to one, considering the extent of the country.

they have in no degree degenerated from the valour of their anceſtors. Their peaſant are ſlow of underſtanding, but tractable. Their ſeamen are a plain, blunt, but rough ſort of people. Their tradeſmen, in general, are honeſt in their dealings, and far from loquacious. Smoking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and, as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are leſs ſociable. The Dutch, like the Engliſh and moſt other commercial nations, have been known abroad to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are, in general, quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking aſcribed to both ſexes, it is chargeable, in a great meaſure, to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions, avarice excepted, ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in moſt other countries. Their tempers are hardly airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor, in general, warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem to be no natives of that country; and love itſelf is ſaid to be little more than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of, rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; for, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they in general unite the neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; and it is rare, that the common courſe of expenſes equals the revenue; when this happens, they think that at leaſt they have lived for one year to no purpoſe; the report of this uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for luxury and extravagance have been gaining ground among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to gallantry, than was known there in former times. No country, except America, can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants, who enjoy at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and no where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of immenſe taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country, except England, experiences, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous work of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water, that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages; while, at the ſame time, they brought under their ſubjection and command, the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks, on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible. Their frugality and perſeverance enabled them, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at her expenſe, and thereby becoming, from a petty province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and me-

chanics begin to emulate the luxuries of the Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, equal thoſe of any other part of Europe in their living, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch are bowls, billiards, tennis, cheſs, and angling, in ſummer; and, in winter, ſhooting wild geeſe and ducks, and ſkaiting, in which latter they are very expert. Men and women dart forward with aſtoniſhing velocity, frequently with heavy loads on their heads. The principal people ſeat themſelves in ſledges, which are puſhed forward with great ſwiftneſs, by a man placed behind them.

DRESS.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women: which gave them a groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and particularly amongſt the ſea-faring people. The higher ranks follow the faſhions in France and England.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under the trees planted on their borders, is admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that are every where obſervable within doors: this city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages; bad air, and the want of freſh, wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain-water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, and reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all ranks, who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed at 40,000. Leyden and Utrecht are elegant cities, and famous for their univerſities. Saardam, a village in North Holland, contains about 900 wind-mills; partly corn-mills, partly ſaw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. It is a wealthy trading place, and in it was the workſhop where Peter, the czar of Muſcovy, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhipbuilding, and laboured as a common artiſan. The upper part of Guelderland, and the capital city, Gelder, are ſubject to Pruſſia.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING.] The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by covered boats, called track-ſchuyts, which are dragged along canals by horſes, on a ſlow, uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling is convenient, and very cheap. By means of theſe canals an extenſive land commerce is carried on through the whole country; and, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the reſt of the world are conveyed at a ſmall expenſe into various parts of Germany, and the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. A canal boat is divided into two different apartments, the one for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is delighted with beholding the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined, for miles together, with elegant country-houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure-grounds, adorned with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects for amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families, in fair weather, ſpend much of their time there ſmoking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would

comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this, they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, their induſtry and frugality, and, above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond moſt other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be ſometimes purchaſed there, cheaper than in the countries whence they are exported. Their Eaſt-India company has had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than an hundred years, and, till the late war with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the other cities of Aſia. There the viceroys appear in greater ſplendour, than the ſtadtholder aſſumes in Holland: and ſome of the Dutch in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on Holland. Among the monopolies of the Eaſt-India company, the ſpice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the moſt valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Aſiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 150,000lbs. of cloves are annually ſold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe. The company pay on the ſpot only eight ſtivers per pound; but the freight and other charges raiſe this price to forty-three; and the company ſell it at no leſs than ſeventy-five. Of nutmeg, the produce of the iſland of Banda, 250,000lbs. are ſold in Europe, and 100,000 in India: the prime coſt is ſomewhat more than one ſtiver per pound: including charges, the pound ſtands the company in about twenty-five ſtivers; and is ſold by them at upwards of fifty ſtivers, weſt of the Cape of Good Hope; and at about forty ſtivers, eaſt of it. In India 200,000lbs. of cinnamon are ſold, and 400,000 in Europe. The company, to their eternal reproach, frequently deſtroy immenſe quantities of theſe valuable ſpices, to prevent their exorbitant price from falling in the market. The Java coffee is the beſt, except that of Mecca, in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the excluſive poſſeſſion of the Dutch. They have other ſettlements in India, but none ſo pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, as that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous for ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Louis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome preparations to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India, ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Their herring and whale fiſheries are carried on to conſiderable extent. They excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade; ſuch as their pottery, tobacco pipes, delf-ware, refined ſalt; their oil-mills, and ſtarch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; and fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing, &c.

This country affords a ſtriking proof, that unwearied and perſevering induſtry is capable of conquering every diſadvantage of climate and ſituation. The poſſeſſion of the very ſoil is diſputed by the ocean, which, riſing conſiderably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by ſtrong and expenſive dykes, from overflowing a ſpot which ſeems to be wreſted from its natural domains. Notwithſtanding theſe difficulties, which might appear inſurmountable to a leſs laborious race of inhabitants, the inceſſant efforts of the indefatigable Dutch, have rendered this ſmall and ſeemingly inſignificant territory, in fact, one of the richeſt ſpots in Europe, both with reſpect to population and property. In other countries, which are poſſeſſed of a variety of natural productions, we are not ſurpriſed to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the ſoil beſtows. But to ſee, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are ſcarcely any

flocks; numberleſs artiſts employed in metals, where there is no mine; thouſands of ſaw-mills where there is ſcarcely any foreſt; an immenſe quantity of corn, exported from a country, where there is not agriculture enough to ſupport one half of its inhabitants, muſt ſtrike every attentive obſerver with admiration. Their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are not in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now, as at the beginning of this century; the riches and luxury of individuals have damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants. Notwithſtanding their uniform caution, their public debt is great, and taxes neceſſary to diſcarge the intereſt of it, have greatly impeded the progreſs of their proſperity. Their commerce hath greatly ſuffered ſince their rupture with England.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the principal is the Eaſt-India, incorporated in 1602, by which the Dutch formerly acquired immenſe wealth, having divided forty per cent, and ſometimes ſixty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but, in an hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors averaged above twenty-four per cent. annually. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch Weſt-India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam is reported to be inexhauſtably rich, and is under an excellent direction: it has been ſaid to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomething more than current caſh, in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults, of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix millions ſterling; others leſſen this ſum to thirty millions, which is moſt probably far beyond the truth.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the preſbyterian or Calviniſtic; none but preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, except the army; yet all religious ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the Roman Catholics and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhip God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and the bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate; with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and inquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand almoſt at the head of modern learning, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book, entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics, in the early ages of printing, came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch, like their neighbours, have been infatuated by unmeaning controverſies on divinity, which prevailed ſo much in the ſtate, that, before the principles of univerſal toleration were eſtabliſhed, they had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will,

predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all the branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann are ranked among their learned commentators upon the claſſics. Their Latin poems and epigrams are numerous. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch politicians are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employment in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker. The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the united Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere, adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clockwork. Here is alſo a phyſic garden, and an anatomical theatre. The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic-garden here is very curious. The number of ſtudents is generally ſeven or eight hundred in each of the univerſities of Leyden and Utrecht: in the other three, they are not ſo numerous. Theſe ſeminaries of learning have each three or four divinity profeſſors, as many of phyſic, and two or three of law; beſides others of hiſtory, languages, and eloquence, or the *belles lettres*, and others of philoſophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The profeſſors in the univerſities of Holland are often men of learning and eminence; as there is a kind of emulation between the ſtates of the different provinces, which ſhall have the greateſt men to adorn their univerſities, and attract moſt ſtudents from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns: and, therefore, they are ready to afford very liberal encouragement to able profeſſors, who are often invited from the univerſities of Germany. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries, in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature: and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expenſes, or ſo much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities; for, frugality in expenſe, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers, who continue among them, ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor religious teſts; ſo that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here, with as little ſcruple as proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be 17 ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo ſeverely, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtrich, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world; it ſtands upon 13,649 large piles driven in to the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. There are ſeveral muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden.

GOVERNMENT.] It is not eaſy to give a ſatisfactory account of this ſubject. The ſtates general have been termed a republic; yet this word admits of very different ſignifications. Mr. Adams, in his book upon government, ſays, that "the Hollanders

had no democratical mixture in their conſtitution; entirely ariſtocratical; and preſerved from tyranny and deſtruction, partly by a ſtadtholder, partly by the people in mobs; but more eſpecially by the number of independent cities and ſovereignties aſſociated together, and the great multitude of perſons concerned in the government, and compoſing the ſovereignty, four or five thouſand; and finally by the unanimity that is required in all tranſactions." If this was the former ſtate of the government in the United Provinces, it is not likely to have been much improved in point of freedom, ſince it was laſt ſettled, 1787, at the point of the Pruſſian bayonet. With regard to this part of our work, we have, among other ſources, conſulted De la Croix, as he is perhaps the lateſt writer on the ſubject. His remarks are too diffuſe for inſertion, and too indiſtinct and incomplete to admit of ſatisfactory abridgment. That the ſtadtholder acquired a great acceſſion of power at the late ſurrender of Amſterdam, is naturally to be ſuppoſed; but ſtill a great ſhare of ariſtocracy prevails in the government.

There is ſomething very intricate in the conſtitution of the United Provinces. They all, indeed, form a general confederacy; and ſtatutes made in the aſſembly of the ſtates, after they have acquired the neceſſary ſanctions, become binding on all the inhabitants of the ſeven provinces. But, notwithſtanding this particular, each province has a ſeparate internal government, wholly independent of the others; but as theſe independent governments, conſidered ſeparately, could not defend themſelves againſt the attempts of a foreign enemy, they are formed into one collective body, by a certain number of deputies or repreſentatives choſen by each, who conſtitute the legiſlative authority, and are termed "the States-general." Their power is, however, in ſome reſpects limited; for, when a reſolution is taken by the ſtates, it has not the force of a law, till it has received the approbation of every province, every city, and every republic in that province: nor is even a majority of voices in theſe different and ſubordinate aſſembles ſufficient: it muſt be entirely approved: one diſſenting voice being able to render the whole abortive. In times of imminent danger, indeed, theſe tedious formalities are commonly laid aſide, and the approbation of the ſtates-general is allowed to be ſufficient.

It has been already obſerved, that the ſtates-general conſiſt of deputies, or delegates from every province. The whole number is uſually from thirty to forty-five members. No diſtinction of rank is obſerved among them. They ſit continually; and each member preſides in turn for one week. Thus there are no cabals, no ſecret combinations formed to obtain the dignity of preſident, nor for excluding certain individuals from the chair.

The ſtadtholder may preſent himſelf before the ſtates general, whenever he is diſpoſed to make any propoſition tending to the advantage of the republic; but he has no right to ſit there as a member; nor is any particular place aſſigned for him. When he has made this propoſal, the ſtates aſk his opinion, which he gives. He then retires, that they may take the buſineſs into conſideration. William the third, who, after he became king of England, retained the office of ſtadtholder, had a chair of ſtate prepared for his reception, when he went to the aſſembly. This innovation was admitted out of reſpect to his title of king; but, ſince his death, this mark of diſtinction has not been revived.

The equeſtrian order of each province, compoſed of nobles, forms a diſtinct body, which always deputes one of its members to the ſtates-general.

The deputies of the provinces, thoſe of Zealand only excepted, who are *choſen for life*, are recalled, ſome at the expiration of three years, ſome not till ſix; but they are always appointed with this proviſo, that their conſtituent *may recal them whenever they pleaſe*, in caſe of malverſation or deviation from their inſtructions.

Some provinces ſend two deputies, others more; but the number of deputies does not increaſe the number of voices in the aſſembly; each province having only one vote in the determination of any queſtion that comes before the ſtates-general.

The deputies of eighteen cities, and one repreſentative of the nobility, conſtitute the ſtates of the province of Holland: theſe eighteen cities, though all ſituated in that province are ſeparate, and, what the Dutch call, *independent* republics. The legiſlative power of Amſterdam is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who continue members for life; and when one dies, the vacancy is *filled up by the ſurvivors!* This ſenate alſo appoints the deputies to repreſent the eighteen cities of the province of Holland, in the aſſembly of ſtates general; ſo that *the people of theſe* INDEPENDENT REPUBLICS, as they are uſually ſtiled, *have no voice in electing any of the deputies, or even of their own magiſtrates.*

Next in authority to the ſtates general, is the council of ſtates, conſiſting of deputies from the ſeveral provinces. The greater part of theſe deputies ſit for three years only, and their reſpective ſtates can at *any time recal them.* This council is compoſed of twelve perſons, beſides a ſecretary and and treaſurer, who are conſulted, but do not vote. Of the twelve members, Holland ſends three, Guelderland two, Zealand two, Utrecht two, Frieſland one, Overyſſell one, and Groningen one. In this council the votes are not taken by provinces, as in the ſtates-general, but by perſonal voices, and every deputy preſides in his turn. When the ſtadtholder aſſiſts at the council, he acts as preſident, and, when the votes happen to be equal, has a caſting voice. The buſineſs of the council conſiſts in preparing eſtimates, finding out ways and means for raiſing the public revenue, and preparing other matters neceſſary to be laid before the ſtates-general.

Subordinate to theſe bodies is the chamber of accounts, which is alſo compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all the public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board; and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges, in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland.

The office of grand penſionary is, in Holland, next in conſequence to that of ſtadtholder. This miniſter is keeper of the ſeals, and has a ſeat among the ſtates-general. This important commiſſion is conferred only for five years; but, unleſs a political miſunderſtanding occurs, it is commonly continued for life. To the penſionary foreign ambaſſadors addreſs themſelves on all matters of mere form. He maintains the correſpondence of the republic with foreign courts, and, as he ought to make himſelf acquainted with their ſecrets, the public allows him the diſpoſal of a hundred thouſand florins per annum, of which he is not required to give any account. This office has been more than once fatal to its poſſeſſor.

We do not offer theſe particulars to the reader, as an accurate delineation of the conſtitution of the ſeven United Provinces. Authentic materials for this purpoſe cannot eaſily be found. From what has been above ſtated, it will be evidently ſeen, that this republic cannot claim the praiſe of a regular and well-digeſted ſyſtem of government. But the good ſenſe of the people, a faculty, for which they have always been diſtinguiſhed, has obviated, in *practice*, many of its defects in *theory*.

REVENUES.] The United provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Theſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, hearth money, and other taxes, which in number, almoſt exceed the power of figures. Temple ſays, that a plate of fiſh, bought in the market, has paid 30 ſucceſſive taxes before it reached the table. The public income amounts to about four millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the ſeven United Provinces is ſaid to contribute towards the public expenſe:

Of every million of ducats, the province of Holland contributes			420,000
Zealand	—	—	130,000
Frieſland	—	—	170,000

Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overyſſel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo numerous, that a certain author with reaſon aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation, is the air they breath. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are low. The Dutch lend large ſums to moſt of the powers of Europe, as well as to the United States of America.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounts to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Swiſs. During war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field-marſhal general. The United Provinces formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Britain obliged them to increaſe it; and they have great reſources for that purpoſe. According to the laſt accounts, their navy conſiſts of one ſhip of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, beſides veſſels of inferior force. But they have many ſhips upon the ſtocks, and their fleet will, probably, be much augmented, and, in future, be kept in better order.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, were called Gallia Belgica, by the Romans. About a century before the chriſtian æra, the Batæ removed from Heſſe to the marſhy diſtrict bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. The Batavians were treated by the Romans with great reſpect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military ſervices. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the empire. Batavia and Holland became independent of Germany, to which they had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers of a court, the nobles, and the towns. At laſt they were engroſſed by the houſe of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon, Philip II. who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, and occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appeared at the head of it; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the male-contents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the *Council of Blood*, in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe who periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom the people elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters, at firſt, were thought ſo deſpicable, as to be termed *beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, was ſo deciſive, that they compelled the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in

the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their wars at ſea with England, under the commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the houſe of Auſtria, which, for ſome ages, had ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of William, who was afterwards king of Britain. During his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the confederacy againſt Lewis XIV.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 hath been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country; as alſo the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh, in the year 1780. As they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Britain, ſo all thoſe which bound Britain to them, were declared null and void.

It is not difficult to explain the cauſes of the inſignificance of the Dutch during this war. They are to be traced to the treachery of the ſtadtholder; and here a ſhort retroſpect becomes neceſſary. On the death of William the third, in 1702, that office had been ſuppreſſed, and remained in diſuſe for a courſe of forty-five years. But the regency of the republic, who ſucceeded to his authority, had committed great abuſes. They had exalted an ariſtocracy on the ruins of the office of ſtadtholder. The burgomaſters had become ſo corrupt, as to farm out the taxes, and afterwards take a ſhare in the bargain. The natural conſequences was, that, as the profits were their own, they ſtudied nothing more than to increaſe them, and directed the collection of the taxes in the moſt ſevere and oppreſſive manner. This conduct convinced the people, that if the chief, whom they had loſt, was ſometimes deſpotic, a thouſand tyrants had ſprung up in his ſtead; who diſplayed on every occaſion an odious and humiliating authority. The pleaſure of overturning theſe oppreſſors bewildered the minds of the multitude. In 1747, they placed William of Naſſau in the ſeat of authority. A party in favour of his family had always exiſted; and the deſpotiſm of the burgomaſters turned the torrent of popular opinion into that channel. The prince, who had done nothing to ſerve the republic, obtained from the thoughtleſs ſervility of the people, more unbounded prerogatives annexed to his office, than had been poſſeſſed by the moſt ambitious and popular chiefs of the houſe of Orange. His appointments were *declared to be hereditary in favour of his poſterity; and even daughters, in default of male iſſue, were to be admitted to the enjoyment of them.*

The new ſtadtholder did not diſplay an exuberance of gratitude to his benefactors. He ſold offices and employments. He cauſed himſelf to be named director-general of the India company. He appropriated to himſelf a part of their dividends. He neglected the ſupport of the marine, and of the fortifications of the frontier towns. Like moſt monarchs, he reigned only for his minions and for himſelf. No friend to mankind could lament his death, which happened in the year 1751.

His wife, a daughter of George the ſecond, was appointed governeſs during the minority of her ſon William the fifth, who is now ſtadtholder. Lewis, duke of Brunſwic, was declared commander in chief of the forces. Holland retained nothing of a republic, but the name. Brunſwic filled its army with a multitude of foreigners; introduced new maxims into the ſervice, and, by every poſſible expedient, detached the troops from the intereſt of their country. But the ſtadtholder himſelf was a good-natured and indolent man, addicted to the pleaſures of the table; and, till the year 1781, he was beloved and reſpected by the Hol-

landers. All their hatred was levelled againſt the duke of Brunſwic. When France had determined to aſſiſt the United States of North America, ſhe naturally became ſolicitous to engage the Dutch in the ſame quarrel. In conſequence of her intrigues, operating with other cauſes, the duke was expelled, and the war was begun. But, though the ſtadtholder could not prevent thoſe meaſures on the part of Holland, which produced hoſtilities, yet he had ſufficient authority or reſources of ſome kind, to hinder the republic from a proper exertion of her ſtrength. Abuſing his truſt as high admiral, he impeded, as far as he could, the equipment of a ſquadron, which was deſtined to protect the commerce of his country againſt the fleets of England. When informed of the vigorous reſiſtance made by Admiral Zoutman, in the action with ſir Peter Parker, he was ſo far from ſharing in the general exultation, that he could not diſſemble his vexation. *At leaſt*, ſaid he, *the Engliſh are not beaten.* With ſuch a ſupreme magiſtrate, it was not wonderful that the Dutch were every where defeated, or that their trade ſuffered extenſive loſſes. At the ſubſequent peace, every place which had been taken from them, was reſtored, except Negapatnam.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Britain, may be attributed the late differences between the ſtates-general and the emperor of Germany, who, from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his deſigns. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demoliſh the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne; and now he ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the ſtates; but, before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extend his dominions a ſmall degree by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negociations, he demanded that the Dutch guardſhip ſhould be removed from before fort Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of his prerogatives was the free navigation of the Scheld. This being complied with, the negociations were opened at Bruſſels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when ſeveral other demands of ſmall portions of territory, and little ſums of money, were made, the moſt material requiſition being the town of Maeſtricht, and its territory. For ſome time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner, which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters ſeemed faſt tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of Auguſt, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commiſſioners at Bruſſels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeſtricht, in conſideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheld, in both its branches, to the ſea; and, as a proof of his confidence in the good intention of the ſtates, he determined to conſider the river, as open from the date of that paper. Any inſult on his flag, in the execution of theſe purpoſes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. In conſequence of this obſtinacy, Joſeph ſent ſome ſhips up the Scheld to Antwerp; but the Dutch ſtopped them on their paſſage, and anſwered his complaints and menaces by a manifeſto. In this they plainly proved, what had never been doubted by any body, that the demands of Joſeph were in contradiction to a ſeries of the moſt ſolemn treaties. They might have added, that neither Joſeph, nor his predeceſſors, would have enjoyed the ſovereignty of theſe provinces, but for the interpoſition of the ſtates-general. They reminded the emperor, that his anceſtor, Charles the ſixth, had obtained poſſeſſion of this part of the Netherlands, by two different treaties, concluded, the firſt on the 11th of April, 1713, and the ſecond on the 14th of November, 1715, upon the expreſs condition, that the Scheld ſhould continue to be ſhut up, and that

the barrier towns ſhould be maintained in a ſtate of defence. From this incontrovertible ſtate of facts, the ingratitude and treachery of Joſeph ſtand in a very ſtriking point of view.

Great preparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch; and ſeveral hundreds of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation, that laid under water many miles of flat country round the forts on the Scheld, to preſerve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themſelves, in caſe they ſhould be called forth to open a campaign in the next Spring; but France and Pruſſia interpoſed as negociators and mediators; and ſucceeded in effecting a reconciliation.

During the progreſs of their contentions with the emperor, the Dutch were greatly diſtreſſed by the moſt unhappy animoſities among themſelves. Of the origin of theſe diſcontents, we have already taken ſome notice. The continued ſeries of loſſes, which they had ſuſtained in the late war with Britain, was diſgraceful to the republic. All her ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies had fallen into the hands of the Britiſh without reſiſtance; her ſhips had been captured, and her trade ruined; while the diſaſters of the war excited the animoſities of the two factions againſt each other to the higheſt degree. The patriots, or ariſtocratic party, attributed theſe defects to the ſtadtholder, who, as we have before obſerved, had diſcovered his predilection for the Engliſh at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very juſtly reverted. They accuſed him of having adviſed the aggreſſion of the Engliſh, and of contributing to their ſucceſs by treachery. The evident inequality of the ſtruggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arſenals of the republic, the frequent and public repreſentations made by the prince and by the council of ſtate, on the ſubject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful miſconduct of the ſtadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots, as the ſole cauſe of that ſucceſſion of defeats and diſgraces, which immediately followed the commencement of hoſtilities. Whilſt theſe were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party, accuſed their antagoniſts of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

The alterations in the Dutch conſtitution projected by the patriots, were as follow: "That the *forms* of the preſent government ſhould continue to ſubſiſt, but that the ſtates ſhould become, in every reſpect, completely independent of the ſtadtholder; and that, for this purpoſe, he ſhould no longer enjoy a ſeat in any of the colleges in the republic. That the ſtadtholder's right of recommending candidates for the vacant magiſtracies in the towns of Holland, ſhould ceaſe. That the offices of ſtadtholder and captain-general ſhould, if poſſible, be ſeparated and conferred on different perſons; or that, at leaſt, the titles only ſhould be reſerved to the prince of Orange, and the offices be executed, as in the time of the De Witts, by deputies choſen for the purpoſe. In general, that the ſtadtholder ſhould poſſeſs ſuch powers only, as might enable him to execute the orders of the ſtates; that the hereditary ſtadtholderate ſhould continue in the prince of Orange, on his acceptance of theſe terms; but that, in caſe of his refuſal, the different ſtates ſhould be at liberty to elect another ſtadtholder."

In the aſſembly of the ſtates, it was contended, that the ſtates themſelves were proper ſovereigns of the country, that the ſtadtholder was no more than their ſervant, and that whatever powers they might communicate to him, were revocable at pleaſure; but with regard to the garriſon of the Hague in particular, they affirmed that the provincial ſtates had never given it into his hands. In purſuance of this idea, it was next directed, that, on the commencement of the year 1786, the arms of the houſe of Orange ſhould be taken out of the enſigns of the troops of Holland, and thoſe of the province ſubſtituted in their room; that the preſident of the

provincial ſtates ſhould, on all occaſions, receive the military honours and ſalute from the gariſon of the Hague, as the preſident of the ſtates already did; and that no other officer of the province ſhould be entitled to that diſtinction. The next ſteps were, to diſmiſs the body-guards of the prince, though this was afterwards qualified by allowing them to extinguiſh themſelves, and to enliſt no more in the room of thoſe who died.

Theſe proceedings were by no means agreeable to the inhabitants of the Hague, who had always ſhown the greateſt attachment to the ſtadtholder; and they ſoon prepared a petition to the ſtates of Holland, requeſting them to interpoſe their good offices with the prince of Orange, to induce him to return from Breda, to which he had retired on the 14th of September, 1785, to the place of his uſual reſidence. The ſtates, however, ſuppreſſed this petition, as ſoon as they knew that it exiſted; and the affairs of the ſtadtholder appeared to be in the moſt deſperate ſituation.

The new king of Pruſſia offered his mediation; but, that being refuſed, he applied to the court of France, to know whether they would co-operate with him in his pacific intention. On receiving a favourable anſwer to this, both monarchs united their efforts to reconcile the contending parties; but all in vain; ſo that their ambaſſadors departed from the Hague, in the month of January, 1787.

This unfortunate event produced various accuſations againſt, and vindications of the two parties, with a long train of negociations, reſolutions, and animoſities, until, at laſt, in the month of May, the ſtadtholder gave orders to ſeize on Vreeſwick, a poſt of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its ſituation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing alſo the ſluices by which both the provinces might be overflowed. This occaſioned a ſkirmiſh between the troops of the ſtadtholder and the burgeſſes of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other hoſtilities took place; but, while the military operations were carried on in a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amſterdam, excited as uſual, by the partiſans of the ſtadtholder, in which ſeveral perſons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who deſerted to the ſtadtholder. But, notwithſtanding this advantage, and ſome others which afterwards took place, the diſpute ſtill continued with extreme violence, inſomuch that the princeſs of Orange herſelf was ſeized, and detained a priſoner one night by the patriots.

In this important ſtage of the diſpute, the French made ſome diſpoſitions, as if they meant to interfere; and De la Croix affirms, as a fact, which is ſince, certainly known, that the Pruſſian forces, who ſoon after terminated the ſtruggle, had received orders to proceed no longer than while no French army reſiſted their paſſage. This disjunction of Holland from the intereſt of England would have been a deep, and perhaps mortal blow to her tyranny over the ocean; but France, at the time when the laſt exertions were required, and with confidence expected, by her Dutch partiſans, ſhrunk from the combat. By the moſt wretched diſſipations, ſhe had been reduced to the verge of that temporary bankruptcy, which has ſince overturned her government. England fitted out a naval armament, and threatened her with an inſtant declaration of hoſtilities. Beſides, the inſurgents of the United Provinces were divided among themſelves. One party wiſhed to reſtore an ariſtocracy. A ſecond had ſprung up within its boſom, which panted for a democratical form of government. The ſtadtholder ſtill poſſeſſed a numerous band of adherents, prompt, when an opportunity ſhould preſent itſelf, to throng around the ſtandard of deſpotiſm. On contemplating every circumſtance, the miniſtry of France determined to deſert their allies, and leave theſe commotions to be ſettled by the king of Pruſſia. For this purpoſe, the ſame duke of Brunſwic, who has ſince become ſo unfortunately famous by his expedition into France, conducted an army

of Pruſſians into the territories of the United Provinces, and took poſſeſſion of the city of Rotterdam, and ſome other places, without reſiſtance. This overawed both parties to ſuch a degree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the ſtates of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guarantied the ſtadtholderſhip, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the houſe of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives ſettled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to diſturb the domeſtic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, were guarded againſt by the cloſe union that ſubſiſts between theſe two powers.

Here we ſhall conclude the hiſtory of the Seven United provinces, whoſe inhabitants ſo glorioufly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the cauſe of Liberty. Their vigorrous and ſucceſsful ſtruggles in this noble conteſt, againſt the tyranny and ferocious bigotry of Philip II. will be always remembered with pleaſure, whilſt men have a juſt ſenſe of the natural rights and liberties of mankind, which will be, it is hoped, ſo long as human nature exiſts. A variety of cauſes have involved the ſtates-general in the preſent war with France, ſo powerfully ſupported by half the ſovereigns of Europe againſt that formidable but infant republic. Had the irruption of Dumourier been commenced with equal vigour, at a more early period, there ſeems to be little doubt, that the Dutch government would have undergone a freſh revolution. It would be ſuperfluous to attempt, in this place, to give a ſatisfactory detail of the tranſactions of the preſent war. A cloud of obſcurity hangs over ſome parts of it, which a few months will moſt probably diſpel. Under the head of *France* we ſhall endeavour to preſent a ſuccinct narrative of this conteſt, as far as it affects Holland; an undertaking, which, in the midſt of a very bloody campaign, would be imperfect, or rather, impracticable, while events the moſt various and important, are every moment burſting into birth.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles:		Degrees.
Length	200	between	49 and 52 north lat.
Breadth	200		2 and 7 eaſt long. from Lon. and 77 and 82 from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces, on the north; by Germany, eaſt; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, ſouth; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.		Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom, Grave,	N.	1374
	Lillo, Steenbergen.	N. W.	

Subdivsions.		Chief towns.		Sq. M.
2. Auſtrian Brabant		Bruſſels, E. long. from London, 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.		1892
		Louvain	in the middle.	
		Vilvorden		
		Landen		

ANTWERP; and 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

		Limburg, E. long. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37, ſubject to Auſtria.		312
Chief towns		Maeſtricht,	ſubject to the Dutch.	300
		Dalem,		
		Fauquemont, or Valkenburgh.		

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Auſtrian Luxemburg		Luxemburgh, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45.		
French Luxemburg		Thionville,	S. E.	2408
		Montmedy.		292

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

Chief towns.		Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe, E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50. 30.		425
		Charleroy on the Sambre.		

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Auſtrian Hainault		Mons, E. lon. 3-33 N. lat. 50-30.	in the middle.	640
		Aeth		
		Enguien		
French Hainault		Valenciennes	S. W.	800
		Bouchain		
		Conde		
		Landrecy.		

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France		Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.		150
		Crevecœur, S. of Cambray		

9. Province of ARTOIS.

		Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20.		
		St. Omer, E. of Boulogne		
Subject to France		Aire, S. of St. Omer		990
		St. Venant, E. of Aire.		
		Bethune, S. E. of Aire		
		Terouen, S. of St. Omer.		

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulſt, N. Sas van Ghent, N.	280
Auſtrian Flanders	Ghent, on the Scheld, E. long. 3-36. N. lat. 51. Bruges, Oſtend, Newport — N. W. near the ſea Oudenard, on the Scheld Courtray, Dixmude — on the Lis Ypres, N. of Liſle Tournay, on the Scheld Menin on the Lis	1905
French Flanders	Liſle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coaſt, E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gaavelin, E. of Calais	760

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in Winter and Summer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been eſteemed the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn, rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. Its declenſion in latter times, has been cauſed, like that of ſo many other nations, principally by the errors of its government, of which its wiſer neighbours, the Engliſh and Dutch have availed themſelves. But it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands; Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of ſmall hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth, proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſil nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian low countries are generally called) are thought to be an ingenious, honeſt people; but their man-

ners are said to be not so refined as those of their neighbours, the French. Formerly they fought desperately in defence of their country; and also lately against Joseph II. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and a half. They are uncultivated, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders imitate the French in both these particulars. The Flemings, on the Frontiers of Holland, dress like the Dutch peasants, and their language is the same; but the higher ranks of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, and Malines or Mechlin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremond.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian low countries, in which they had many opulent establishments. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings, models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities in this country are those of Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer's. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the previlege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right it still possesses, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found there; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidence of their former grandeur In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins and ancient medals of Antonius Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes, published by different authors; but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but the town is now thinly inhabited. Bruges formerly so noted for its trade and mannfactures, but, above all, for its fine canals, is now reduced to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerable convenient harbour; and, soon after the late rupture between Britain and Holland, became opulent and populous. 1781, it was visited by the emperor, who granted it many privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and harbours Bruffels retains somewhat of its ancient manufacture; and, being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrain Netherlands, is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread-lace shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining.

One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels loaded with ſtones, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty; but they foreſaw that the proſperity of their own commerce was at ſtake.

It may be obſerved, that almoſt every gentleman's houſe here, is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are as many ſtrong towns in the Netherlands as in all the reſt of Europe; but, ſince the decline of their trade, through the proſperity of that of England and Holland, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are, in appearance, uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine, in Bruſſels, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than a quarter dollar. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable, and delightful in this luxuriant country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run, for ſome miles, in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings. From Caſſel, in the French Netherlands, which is ſeated on a hill, may be ſeen thirty-two towns.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unequalled; particularly in that ſpecies called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION, &c.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the Diet; but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor general, or regent, appointed by the court of Vienna. The appearance of an aſſembly or parliament, for each province, is ſtill retained, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges; but they are of very little effect: and the governor, till of late, ſeldom found any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Each province has a particular governor, ſubject to the regent; and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe ariſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms: but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expenſe of their government; but, by the late reduction of the garriſons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the nation.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in the time of war, above 10,000 more. But the late emperor demoliſhed the fortifications of moſt of the places, and rendered the garriſons uſeleſs.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, Or, a lion ſable, and langued gules.

HISTORY.] After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards retained poſſeſſion of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the LOW COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs

queen, was poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have ſtill held them, but for the exertions of the Dutch and Engliſh, in favour of the houſe of Auſtria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceeding general table of diviſions.

It was not long after the ſettlement of the diſturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor, determined to aſſert their liberty. As no great friendſhip had ſubſiſted between the ſtates and his imperial majeſty, it was natural to ſuppoſe that the diſcontented ſubjects of the latter, would find a ready aſylum in the territories of the Dutch. The quarrel originated, like thoſe in other countries, about the prerogatives aſſumed by the emperor, and which were more extenſive than he had any right to. A letter concerning this had been publiſhed as early as the 13th of December, 1787, by count Trautmanſdorff, the imperial miniſter to the council of Brabant; in which province the diſputes had originally commenced. In this performance, the count took notice of the little confidence they put in the emperor, and commanded them, in the moſt expreſs terms, "to hold no connection, relation, correſpondence, or keep up any underſtanding whatever on public affairs, either in a body or by commiſſioners, with the ſtates or their deputies, without the previous knowledge or expreſs command of the emperor or his repreſentative." This not proving effectual, and Joſeph making uſe of force to aſſert his prerogatives, the territories of the United Provinces became an aſylum to the diſcontented Brabanters. They firſt began to aſſemble in Dutch Brabant, in the cloſe of the Summer of 1789, and being well received, took up their head quarters at Tilbourg. To this place they invited their oppreſſed countrymen to join them, and promiſed them the pay of fourteen ſols per day for their ſupport. From whatever ſource theſe patriots derived their finances, it ſoon became evident that they were well ſupplied; for this ſum was punctually paid; and they had great plenty of proviſions: ſo that, being protected by the ſtates-general, they ſoon became very ſtrong, and in a very ſhort time manifeſted a deſign to aſſert their liberty by force of arms. Their firſt exploits were the taking of two forts belonging to the emperor, ſituated between Antwerp and Bergen-op Zoom. They ſeized alſo M. Crumpepin, chancellor of Brabant, threatening to hang him up by way of retaliation, for the firſt perſon of their party to whom the emperor ſhould offer any violence.

On the part of the emperor, the inſurgents were treated with great cruelty. A proclamation was iſſued by count Trautmanſdorff, governor of Bruſſels, intimating that no quarter ſhould be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themſelves, ſhould be ſet on fire. General D'Alton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming his determination to become maſter of them by aſſault, and to put every perſon in them to the ſword. A reſolution was taken by the government of Bruſſels, to diſarm all the inhabitants of the Low Countries, except ſuch as were in the actual ſervice of the emperor. A proclamation was accordingly iſſued forth, commanding all perſons to deliver up their arms within twenty four hours, under pain of being accounted favourers of ſedition. All who ſhould be taken with arms in their hands, in any caſe of riot or inſurrection, were to be put to death on the ſpot, without any trial. All the nobility and abbots who had left the country, of whom there were great numbers, were commanded to return, under pain of perpetual baniſhment, and confiſcation of eſtate.

In oppoſition to this ſanguinary proclamation, the patriots iſſued a manifeſto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by his various oppreſſions and cruelties, violating his oath, and infringing the conſtitution. Baniſhment was threatened to ſuch as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country; though ſtrict orders were given, that no

crouds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and that whoever was found guilty of ſuch enormities, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten, in Brabant, October 24th, 1789. The king of Pruſſia was at that time aſſembling an army, with which it was thought he deſigned to take ſome active part in the affair but he publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring that he did not mean to intefere in the troubles of the low countries; but as a director of the circle of the empire, to take notice of thoſe which had happened in the biſhopric of Liege and Wetzlar. Thus, the emperor and the patriots were left to decide their quarrel by themſelves; and in this conteſt the latter diſplayed a reſolution, as well as power, to accompliſh their purpoſes, which were by no means generally expected. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhowed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on the occaſion; which was natural enough, as the emperor had been very active of depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which, after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend; ſo that general D'Alton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of one thouſand men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the imperial character, as well as on the commander of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and deſtroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the mercileſs ſavages not only deſtroyed the men, but killed women and ſucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them againſt the walls of the houſes. By theſe monſtrous cruelties, they inſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which they gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been harraſſed ſince the death of the empreſs queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the imperial prerogative, contrary to the coronation oath, which could not be done without perjury on the part of the emperor; the violence committed on his ſubjects, by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects; he had conſigned towns and villages to the flames; and entered into a deſign of exterminating a people, who contended only for their rights. Theſe things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and eaſily impoſe upon weak minds; but "the natural courage of a nation," rouſed by repeated injuries, and animated by deſpair, would riſe ſuperior to thoſe laſt efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reaſons, they declared themſelves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever releaſed from the houſe* of AUSTRIA.

The emperor now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, publiſhed proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmoſt contempt. The patriots made ſuch rapid conqueſts, that, before the end of the year, they were maſters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg. The emperor next declared himſelf willing to treat with thoſe whom he ſeemed not to be able to ſubdue, but the ſtates publiſhed a paper, by way of preliminary, which ſeemed to give very little hope of ſucceſs to the negociation. In this they inſiſted, 1. That the plenipotentiary, attended by two deputies from the ſtates, ſhould repair to thoſe places in the town of Ghent, "where that *ſanguinary executioner*, D'Alton, ordered, ſaw, and executed robbery, incendiary, rape, profanation, murder, and maſſacre." 2. That the corpſes of thoſe "immolated to the fury of

the ferocious ſervants of the Nero their maſter, ſhould be dug up, and expoſed to the plenipotentiary's view; that he might make a terrific report to the court of Vienna; and not only the banks of the Danube, but the whole world, might be ſtruck with horror." Laſtly, when his heart was ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently impreſſed with this dreadful ſpectacle, it was to be notified to him in the aſſembly of the ſtates, to which he was to be conducted, that "it was impoſſible to treat or make any convention with a ſovereign purjured and profidious, who had repeatedly violated the moſt ſacred of all human ties, though ſecured by the moſt ſolemn treaties with foreign powers." Though the ſtates of Brabant were extremely ſevere on the conduct and character of Dalton, an accident diſcovered that he was not the worſt deſpot in Europe. In his flight from the fury of the inſurgents, he left behind him a collection of letters to him from the emperor Joſeph. They were printed by the captors, and exhibit the ferocity of a tyrant, who rivalled in ſavageneſs the moſt execrable monſters of antiquity. Joſeph expreſsly commands Dalton not to be ſparing of blood, as *lives were of no conſequence*. The whole volume, which has been tranſlated into Engliſh, is full of ſimilar ideas, and affords a memorable ſpecimen of *imperial* ſenſibility.

A new act of union was eſtabliſhed between the Belgic provinces, to which all thoſe formerly ſubject to Auſtria unanimouſly acceded. It originated between thoſe of Flanders and Brabant, and was to the following purpoſe: That neither party ſhould ever enter into any compromiſe with their former ſovereign, but by common agreement. They agreed to change this union into one common ſovereignty between the two ſtates; ſo that the whole power ſhould be centred in a congreſs, compoſed by deputies named by both parties. The powers of this ſovereign aſſembly were to be confined to the ſole object of common defence, to the power of making peace and war, the ſupport of a national militia, the fortifications neceſſary for the defence of the country, the contracting alliances with foreign powers, &c. On the 4th of January, 1790, the ſtates of Brabant were opened with great ceremony at Ghent; they were declared independent, and the emperor to have forfeited all right to the ſovereignty of that country. On the 11th, a ſolemn and general treaty of union was ſigned by the deputies from Brabant, Gelders, Flanders, Weſt Flanders, Hainult, Namur, Tournay, with the territory depending on it, called Tourneſis, and Malines.

Notwithſtanding they thus appeared for ever ſeparated from the houſe of Auſtria, yet the death of Joſeph, which happened ſoon after, produced ſuch a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the ſituation of affairs; and the mild and pacific diſpoſition of Leopold, who ſucceeded his brother, the concili ting meaſures he adopted, together with the mediation of Britain, Pruſſia, and Holland, gave a very different turn to affairs in theſe provinces; and a convention, which was ſigned at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July, 1790, by the abovementioned contracting powers, had for its object the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces, by a general amneſty, and total forgiveneſs of whatever had paſſed during the troubles, under the guarantee of the ſaid powers. Since this time it has been the conſtant labour of theſe plenipotentiaries, in concert with the imperial miniſter, to reduce the Belgic provinces to ſubmiſſion, and to reſtore them to the Auſtrian dominions, on condition of the re eſtabliſhment of their ancient privileges and conſtitution. After the reſtoration of the old ſyſtem in theſe provinces, the following articles were agreed upon by the plenipotentiaries:

I. That on receiving the uſual homage of the Belgic provinces, his imperial majeſty ſhall confirm them in all the conſtitutional privileges and legal cuſtoms, which they had enjoyed by the acts of inauguration of the emperor Charles VI. and the empreſs Maria Thereſa.

II. His imperial majeſty conſents to bury in oblivion all the exceſſes that have

been committed during the late troubles, and to compriſe them in a general amneſty, which ſhould be inſtantly made public; with the exception of a very few individuals, whoſe conduct has precluded them from every claim to this general pardon; and of thoſe culprits, whoſe crimes are diſtinct from the diſorders committed during the late inſurrection. At the ſame time, it is to be underſtood, that his imperial majeſty does not, by this general amneſty, mean either to acknowledge or confirm thoſe uſurpations, which, during the troubles, have been made on the rights and prerogatives of his ſovereign power.

III. His imperial majeſty, during the conference at Reichenbach, having been diſpoſed to grant certain conceſſions, not ulteriorly affecting the imperial conſtitution, in caſe ſubmiſſion ſhould precede compulſion, has yet, at the inſtance of the mediating powers, granted thoſe conceſſions which he had been previouſly diſpoſed to grant of his own accord, as the reward of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, and which are contained in a letter from his imperial majeſty's plenipotentiary to the mediating miniſters, dated at the Hague, the 29th of October, 1790; of which the following are the principal heads, viz. that certain points of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, in which ſome alterations had been made during the laſt reign, ſhould be placed under the regulation of the biſhops, reſtoring to them all the powers which they exerciſed at the termination of the reign of the late empreſs Maria Thereſa;—that, as it would be impoſſible to re-eſtabliſh the ſuppreſſed convents on their former foundations, his majeſty promiſes to apply the revenues of thoſe convents to ſuch pious purpoſes, as ſeem to be moſt analogous to the intentions of their founders; and to revive and confirm in their rights ſuch ſuppreſſed abbies, as anciently enjoyed the privilege of ſending deputies to the ſtates;—that his majeſty, relying on the patriotiſm and volour of the Belgic provinces, renounces every pretenſion to keep a *ſtanding army*, directly or indirectly; and will not attempt to raiſe any troops in the provinces, but with the conſent of the ſtates, and as exigencies may require;—that, confiding in the love of his ſubjects, and their generous efforts for the ſupport of his empire, he engages *never to levy any* TAX upon them, on any pretext whatever, without the full conſent and concurrence of the ſtates;—that the judges of the ſuperior courts are confirmed in their ſtations, agreeably to the conſtitutions of each province on this head;—that the diploma, granted by the emperor Charles VI. to the ſuperior tribunals, be made irrevocable; that his majeſty will hear and conſult with the ſtates and tribunals on the ſubject of any new and general law; as alſo, on the ſubject of penal laws; that his majeſty engages to re-eſtabliſh the organization of the government, and chamber of accounts, on the ſame footing as in the reign of the late empreſs, reſerving to himſelf the right of making ſuch changes, as may become indiſpenſibly neceſſary, yet always with attention to the public voice, and the right of the conſtitution;—that the commander in chief of the troops, and the miniſter plenipotentiary, ſhall be under the command of the governor-general; and that it be eſtabliſhed as an immutable rule, that the ſoldiery ſhall never be called out againſt the citizens, but for the actual ſupport of the laws, and at the requiſition of the magiſtrates;—that his majeſty will make no alterations in the forms of judicature, but in conſequence of previous conſultation with the ſtates, and with their full conſent;—that, for the prevention of any miſunderſtanding; commiſſaries be appointed by the prince and the people; and if their determination ſhould not prove ſatisfactory, then his majeſty and the ſtates ſhall each appoint an equal number of perſons as arbiters, whoſe deciſion ſhall be concluſive, and finally binding; and who, on ſuch occaſion, ſhall be abſolved from the influence of any oaths, that might tend to affect their impartial determination.

IV. The kings of Britain and Pruſſia, and the ſtates-general of Holland, become, in the moſt ſolemn manner, gurantees to the emperor and his ſucceſſors for the ſovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at Hague, on the 10th of December, 1790.

Since this ratification, the Auſtrian Netherlands have become the theatre of the war that rages in Europe. They were rapidly overrun by the French general Dumourier, before his traitorous defection; and all the fortified places that made ſuch formidable reſiſtance in paſt times, were hardly any obſtacle to his progreſs. Their evacuation was almoſt as ſudden as their conqueſt.

GERMANY.

BOUNDARIES.] GERMANY, including Bohemia, Sileſia, and the Auſtrian Netherlands, is bounded, on the north, by the North or German ſea, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the eaſt, by Pruſſia, Poland, and Hungary; on the ſouth, by the gulf of Venice, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the weſt, by France, the North ſea, and the United Netherlands.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	690	between	77 28 and 94 weſt long. from Philadelphia.
Breadth	690		2 28 and 19 eaſt long. from London.
			45 and 55 north latitude.

Square miles 254,920*

NAME.] The Engliſh name, *Germany*, is derived from the Latin name, Germania, of which the etymology is doubtful. Some derive it from the Celtic words, *Ger* or *Gar* and *man*, ſignifying a warlike man; others aſſert, that the Romans gave this name to the country, on account of the fraternal amity and kindneſs, which they perceived among its inhabitants. Germanus ſignifies in the Roman language, a brother, and Germania, a land of brothers. The German name, Germanien, is only uſed in ſtate-writing of the imperial court. The Germans call themſelves *Deutſche*, or *Teutſche*, from Teutones, one of their ancient tribes, and their country, Deutſchland. The French call it Allemagne, from Allemania, which was, in former times, the name of a part of Germany bordering on France.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The greateſt part of Germany is divided into ten circles. Their names and ſituations are as follows.

Engliſh names.	German names.	
1. Circle of Auſtria	Oeſterreich	to the S. on the Danube.
2. Bavaria	Bayern	
3. Swabia	Schwaben	
4. Franconia	Franken, in the middle, on the Maine.	
5. Upper Rhine	Oberrhein	to the W. of the Rhine.
6. Lower Rhine	Nierderrhein	
7. Weſtphalia	Weſtphalen	

* The best German geographers have determined the length and breadth of Germany at 150 German geographical miles; 4 3-5 English miles to one German, make 690. The superficial contents are 12,000 German, or 253,920 English square miles.

Engliſh names.	German names.	
8. Burgundy, or Auſtrian Netherlands	Burgund, oder Oeſterreichiſche Neiderlande	to the W. on the Maeſe.
9. Lower Saxony	Nieder Sachſen	to the north, on the Weſer and Elbe.
10. Upper Saxony	Ober Sachſen	

The other part of Germany, which is not included in the ten circles, though under the juriſdiction of, and ſubject to, the emperor and empire, (Sileſia excepted, part of which is poſſeſſed by the king of Pruſſia, and part independent,) comprehends,

Engliſh names.	German names.	
1. Bohemia	Bohmen	to the eaſt, on the Elbe and Oder.
2. Moravia	Mahren	
3. Luſatia	Lauſiz	
3. Sileſia	Schleſien	

5. Several ſmall ſtates, lordſhips, towns, &c. ſituated within the compaſs of the ten circles, but not belonging to any of them.

The diviſion of the German empire into circles, was made in the year 1500, by the emperor of Maximilian, in the diet at Augſburgh, and confirmed, in 1522, by the diet at Nuremberg. The end of this regulation was, chiefly to preſerve internal peace, which had before been continually diſturbed by domeſtic feuds and wars; to provide for the common defence againſt external enemies: to promote the general welfare of the empire; and to unite the ſtates and members of each circle more cloſely, and thereby ſtrengthen the union of the whole German body.

CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA.

States and principal towns.

I. Lower Auſtria, or the archduchy of Auſtria.

Subdiviſions.	Cities and towns.
1. The land below the Ens,	Vienna†, (Wien) Neuſtadt, Baden.
2. The land above the Ens.	Lintz, Ens.

II. Inner Auſtria.

1. The duchy of Stiria, (Steyermark,)	Gratz‡, Judenburg.
2. The duchy of Carinthia,	Clagenfurt, Villach.
3. The duchy of Carniola, (Crain),	Laybach, Gorits, Icbria.
4. The Litorale.	Trieſte, Fiume.

III. Upper Auſtria, or the principality of Tyrol.

Inſpruck, Trent, Brixen.

IV. Fore Auſtria, in the circle of Swabia.

1. Auſtrian Briſgau,	Freyberg, Old Briſac.
2. Swabian Auſtria,	Conſtance.

CIRCLE OF BAVARIA.

States and principal towns.

I. States of the elector palatine of Bavaria.

1. The duchy of Bavaria,	Munich§, Landſhut, Ingolſtadt, Donawert.

† Vienna, 200,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 12 36, N. long. 16 22 E. from London.
‡ Gratz contains 25,000 inhabitants. Lat. 47 4 18, long. 15 24 45.
§ Munich, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 9, long. 11 30.

Subdivisions.	Cities and towns.
2. The Upper palatinate,	Amburg.
3. The principalities of Newburg and Sultzbach,	Newburg, Sultzbach.
4. The principality of Leuchtenberg,	
5. The county of Haag, and four lordships.	

II. The archbishopric of Saltzburg.

Chief cities. Saltzburg ‖, Hallein.

III. The bishoprics of Regensburg, Passau, and Frysingen.

Chief cities. Passau, Freysingen.

IV. The provostship of Berchtesgaden.

V. The principality of Sternstein.

VI. The county of Ortenburg.

VII. The imperial city of Regensburg*, or Ratisbon.

CIRCLE OF SWABIA.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to secular princes.

1. The duchy of Wurtemberg,	Stutgard†, Tubingen, Ludwigsburg.
2. The margraviate of Baden,	Durlach, Carlsruhe, Rastadt, Baden.
3. The principality of Hohenzollern,	Hechingen, Sigmaringen.
4. Lands of the prince of Furstenberg,	
5. The county of Oettingen,	Oettingen.
6. The principality of Lichtenstein,	
7. The landgraviate of Kletgau,	
8. The principality of Thengen,	
9. Several small counties and lordships, subject to the counts of Waldburg, Konigsegg, Fugger, &c.	

II. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

1. The bishopric of Costnitz, or Constance,	Morsburg.
2. The bishopric of Augsburg,	Dillingen.
3. The abbies and principalities of Kempten, Lindau, and Buchau.	
4. The priory and principality of Ellwangen.	

III. Lands or territories subject to prelates, viz. seventeen male and four female abbies or monasteries. The abbots and abbesses, to whom these monasteries, with their territories, are subject, are prelates of the empire.

IV. Thirty-one imperial cities, of which the principal are, Augsburg‡, Ulm§, Reutlingen, Nordlingen, Hailbronn, Memmingen, Kempten, Kaufbeuren, Ravensburg, Biberach, Lindau, &c.

CIRCLE OF FRANCONIA.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

1. The bishopric of Wurtzburg,	Wurtzburg.
2. The bishopric of Bamberg,	Bamberg.

‖ Saltzburg, 14,000 inhabitants. Lat. 47 44, long. 12 59.
* Regensburg, 21,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 2, long. 11 56.
† Stutgard, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 52, long. 9 10.
‡ Augsburg, 36,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 23 35, long. 10 56 15.
§ Ulm, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6 30, long. 17 5.

Subdivisions.	Cities and towns.
3. The bishopric of Aichstat,	Aichstat.
4. The territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim,	Mergentheim.

II. States subject to secular princes.

1. The margraviate of Anspach and Bareuth,	Anspach§, Swabach, Furth, Bareuth, Culmbach, Erlangen.
2. The principality of Henneberg,	Smalkalden, Schleusingen, Supla, Meinungen.
3. The principality of Hohenlohe,	Oehringen.
4. The principality of Schwartzenberg,	Schwartzenberg.
5. The counties of Castell, Wertheim, Rienech and Erbach, and five lordships,	Wertheim.

III. Five imperial cities: Nuremberg‖, Rothenburg, Windsheim, Schweinfurt, Weissenberg. Nuremberg has a large territory subject to it, wherein is Altorf.

CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE.

States and principal towns.	

I. States subject to secular princes.

1. The landgraviate of Hesse, Hesse Cassel,	Cassel*, Marburg, Hersfeld, St. Goar.
Hesse Darmstadt,	Darmstadt†, Giessen.
2. The principalities of Simmern, Lautern and Veldentz,	Simmern, Lautern.
3. The principality of Zweybruggen, or Deuxponts,	Zweybruggen.
4. The principality of Salm,	
5. The counties of Nassau Weilburg, Nassau Usingen, Nassau Saarbruck, Nassu Saarwerden,	Weilburg, Usingen, Saarbruck, Wisbaden.
6. The counties of Waldeck, Hanau, Munzenberg, Upper Ysenburg, and Solms,	Corbach, Hanau, Budingen, Schwabach.
7. The counties of Witgenstein, Leiningen, Sponheim, Konigstein, Falkenstein, Kriechingen, and Wartenberg.	
8. The lordship of Hanau Lichtenberg (in Upper Alsace) and four other lordships.	

II. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

1. The bishopric of Fulda,	Fulda.
2. The bishopric of Spire,	Bruchsal, Philipsburg.
3. The bishopric of Worms,	
4. The bishopric of Strasburg,	Zabern.
5. The bishopric of Basil,	
6. The principality of Heitersheim,	Heitersheim.

III. Five imperial cities: Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Maine, Wetzlar, Friedberg.

§ Anspach, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 19, long. 10 33.
‖ Nuremberg, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 27 17, long. 11 5.
* Cassel, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 19, long. 9 26 15.
† Darmstadt, 9,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 51, long. 8 35.
‡ Frankfort on the Maine, 36,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 6, long. 8 35.

CIRCLE OF THE LOWER OR ELECTORAL RHINE.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to the elector of Mayence, or Mentz.

Subdivisions.	Cities and towns.
1. The archbishopric of Mayence or Mentz	Mentz§, Aschaffenburg, Bingen.
2. The Aichfeld (in upper Saxony)	Heiligenstadt, Duderstadt.
3. The city of Erfurt with its territory, (in Upper Saxony)	Erfurt‖.

II. The archbishopric of Treves, or Triers.

Chief cities. Triers, Coblentz*, Ehrenbreitstein, Setters.

III. States subject to the elector of Cologne.

1. The archbishopric of Cologne,	Bonn, Andernach.
2. The duchy of Westphalen,	Arensberg.
3. The county of Recklinghausen.	

IV. The Palatinate on the Rhine, or the Lower Palatinate.

Chief cities. Heidelberg†, Manheim‡.

V. The principality of Aremberg.

VI. The county of Lower Ysenburg.

VII. The burgraviate of Rieneck, and the lordship of Beitstein.

CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

1. The bishopric of Munster,	Munster.
2. The bishopric of Osnaburg,	Osnaburg.
3. The bishopric of Paderborn,	Paderborn.
4. The bishopric of Liege (Luttich)	Liege§§, Spa.

II. States subject to the king of Prussia.

1. The duchy of Cleve,	Cleve, Wesel, Duisburg.
2. The principality of Minden,	Minden.
3. The principality of East Friesland,	Aurich, Embden, Norden.
4. The principality of Meurs,	
5. The county of Mark,	Ham.
6. The county of Ravensberg,	
7. The counties of Ticklenburg and Lingen.	

III. States subject to the elector palatine of Bavaria.

1. The duchy of Juliers,	Juliers.
2. The duchy of Bergen,	Dusseldorf, Solingen.

IV. States subject to the elector of Hanover.

1. The principality of Verden	Verden.
2. The counties of Hoya, Diepholtz, and Spiegelberg,	Nienburg.

§ Mentz, 27,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 54, long. 8 20.
‖ Erfurt, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6, long. 11 7 15.
* Coblentz, 12,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 22, long. 7 34.
† Heidelberg, 10,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 24, long. 8 40.
‡ Manheim, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 28 20, long. 8 26.
§§ Liege, 80,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 39, long. 5 35.

V. States subject to the prince of Naſſau Dietz, (ſtadtholder of the United Netherlands) or the counties of Dietz, Dillenburg, Siegen, and Hademar.

Chief cities. Dietz, Dillenburg.

VI. The duchy of Oldenburg.

Chief city, Oldenburg.

VII. Fifteen counties and ſeven lordſhips, of which the moſt conſiderable are,

1. The county of Wied, Neuwied.
2. The county of Schauenburg, Buckeburg, Rinteln.
3. The county of Lippe, Detmold, Lemgo, Lippe.
4. The county of Pyrmont, Pyrmont.

VIII. Seven abbies: four male and three female.

IX. Three imperial cities: Cologne* (Collin) Aix†, (Achen) Dortmund.

CIRCLE OF BURGUNDY, OR THE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS‡.

CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY.

States and principal towns.

I. States ſubject to the elector of Hanover, king of Britain.

1. The duchy of Bremen, Stade.
2. The principality of Lunenburg, Lunenburg, Zell, Haarburg.
3. The principality of Calenberg, Hanover§, Hameln, Goettingen‖, Minden.
4. The principality of Grubenhagen, Einbeck, Clauſthal.
5. The duchy of Saxe Lauenburg, with the land Hadeln, Lauenburgh.

II. States ſubject to the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle.

1. The principality of Wolfenbuttle, Brunſwic**, Wolfenbuttle, Helmſtadt.
2. The principality of Blankenburg, Blankenburg.

III. States ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.

1. The duchy of Magdeburg, Magdeburg††, Halle‡‡.
2. The principality of Halberſtadt, Halberſtadt.

IV. States ſubject to the duke of Mecklenburg.

1. The duchy of Mecklenburg, Schwerin, Wiſmar§§, New Strelitz, Roſtock, Guſtrow.
2. The principality of Schwerin, Buzow.
3. The principality of Razeburg.

V. States ſubject to the king of Denmark.

1. The duchy of Holſtein, Gluckſtadt, Renſburg, Kiel.
2. The lordſhip of Pinneberg, Altena‖‖.
3. The county of Rantzau.

VI. States ſubject to eccleſiaſtical princes.

1. The biſhopric of Hildeſheim, Hildeſheim.
2. The biſhopric of Lubec, Lubec.

* Colonge, 40,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 54, long. 6 52.
† Aix, 25,000 inhabitants.
‡ Of this circle we have already treated.
§ Hanover, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 25, long. 9 52.
‖ Goettingen, 7,600 inhabitants. Lat. 51 31 54, long. 9 54.
** Brunſwic, 22,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 19 18, long. 10 32 51.
†† Magdeburg, 26,000 inhabitants. Lat 52 10, long. 11 47.
‡‡ Halle, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat 1 31, long. 12 12.
§§ Wiſmar and its territory are ſubject to the king of Sweden.
‖‖ Altena, 24,000 inhabitants.

VII. Six imperial cities: Hamburg§, Lubec‖, Bremen*, Goſlar, Nordhauſen, Mulhauſen. the Two laſt are in Upper Saxony.

CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY.

States and principal towns.

I. States ſubject to the elector of Saxony.

Subdiviſions.	Cities and towns.
1. The duchy of Saxony,	Wittenburg†
2. The greateſt part of the margraviate of Miſnia, or Meiſſen,	Dreſden‡, Meiſſen, Konigſtein, Torgau, Leipſic§§, Freyberg, Neuſtadt.
3. The northern part of the landgraviate of Thuringia,	Langenſabza, Weiſenfels.
4. The principality of Querfurt,	Querfurt.
5. A part of Voigtland,	Plauen.
6. The county of Barby,	Barby.

NOTE. Theſe ſix ſtates are divided into ſeven circles: Electoral Thuringia, Meiſſen, Leipſic, Erzgebirge, Voigtland, and Neuſtadt circles.

7. The biſhopric of Merſeburg,	Merſeburg, Lauchſtadt.
8. The biſhopric of Naumburg,	Naumburg, Zeitz.

II. The Mark Brandenburg, ſubject to the King of Pruſſia, comprehending,

1. The Middlemark,	Berlin‖‖, Potſdam**, Spandau, Brandenburg, Frankfort on the Oder††.
2. The Altmark,	Stendal.
3. The Priegnitz,	Perlberg.
4. The Ukermark,	Prentzlow.
5. The Newmark,	Cuſtrin, Croſſen, Cotbus.

NOTE. The Middlemark, Altmark, Priegnitz, and Ukermark, are called the Chur, or Electoral mark.

III. The duchy of Pomerania.

1. Pruſſian Pomerania,	Stetten§§§, Anclam, Stargard, Colberg, Camin.
2. Swediſh Pomerania,	Straſund***, Griefswalde.

IV. States ſubject to the duke of Saxony.

1. The principality of Weimar,	Weimar, Jena.
2. The principality of Eiſenach.	Eiſenach.
3. The principality of Coburg,	Coburg, Hildburghauſen.
4. The principality of Gotha,	Gotha‡‡.
5. The principality of Altenburg,	Altenburg, Saalfeld.

V. The principality of Anhalt.

Chief cities.	Deſſau†††, Bernburg, Zerbſt, Kothen.

§ Hamburg, 100,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 36, long. 10 6.
‖ Lubec, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 50 22, long. 10 54.
* Bremen, 40,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 2, long. 8 46.
† Wittenburg. 6,400 inhabitants. Lat. 51 43 10, long. 12 33 30.
‡ Dreſden, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 2 54, long. 13 40.
§§ Leipſic, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 19 14, long. 12 21.
‖‖ Berlin, 140,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 31 30, long. 13 22 20.
** Potſdam, 28,000 inhabitants.
†† Frankfort on the Oder, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 22, long. 14 33 45.
§§§ Stettin, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 32, long. 14 55.
*** Stralſund, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 54 19, long. 13 32.
‡‡ Gotha, 11,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 58, long. 10 43.
††† Deſſau, 8,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 51, long. 12 15.

VI. The principality of Schwartzburg.

Chief cities. Sonderſhauſen, Rudelſtadt.

VII. The abbey of Quedlinburg.

Chief city. Quedlinburg.

VIII. Four counties, and ſeveral dominions and lordſhips.

1. The county of Mansfeldt, Mansfeldt, Eiſleben.
2. The county of Stolberg, Stolberg.
3. The county of Wernigerode, Wernigerode.
4. The county of Hohenſtein, Ilefeldt.
5. The dominions of the princes and counts Reufs. They are a part of the Voigtland. Graitz, Gera, Schlietz, Lobenſtein.
6. The dominions of the counts of Schonburg, Glauchau.
7. The lordſhips Lora and Kettlenberg. Elrich.

BOHEMIA, MORAVIA, LUSATIA, SILESIA;

and ſeveral ſmall ſtates, not belonging to the ten circles.

States and principal towns.

I. The kingdom of Bohemia, and the margraviate of Moravia, ſubject to the archduke of Auſtria, king of Bohemia.

1. Bohemia, Prague‡, Konigſgratz, Eger, Carlſbad, Toplitz.
2. Moravia, Olmutz*, Brinn, Hradiſh, Znaim, Igla.

II. The margraviate of Upper and Lower Luſatia, ſubject to the elector of Saxony.

1. Upper Luſatia, Bautzen†, Gorlitz, Zittau, Lauban, Camentz, Lobau, Hernhut.
2. Lower Luſatia, Luckau, Guben, Lubben, Kalau, Spremberg.

III. The duchy of Sileſia and the county of Glatz, ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. A part of Upper Sileſia, is ſubject to the king of Bohemia.

1. Lower Sileſia, Breſlaw‡, Brieg, Sweidnitz, Buntzlau, Hirſhberg, Jignitz, Neiſſe, Silberberg.
2. Upper Sileſia, Troppau, Oppelin, Coſel, Tetchen.
3. County of Glatz, Glatz.

IV. Several ſmall ſtates, territories, lordſhips, burgs, and villages, moſtly ſituated within the compaſs of the ten circles but not belonging to any of them.

1. The county of Mumpelgard in France, Mumpelgard.
2. The lordſhips of New Ravenſburg and Waſſerburg in Swabia; Oberſtein in Upper Rhine; Iever, Kniphauſen, Rheda, and the county of Homberg in Weſtphalia; Shauen in Lower Saxony; Aſh in Franconia, and others.
3. The territories of the immediate knights of the empire, who are ſubject only to the emperor and the empire. Their territories are divided into three circles, named after the circles of the empire, wherein they lie, viz. the circles of Swabia, Franconia, and Rhine. Each circle, comprehending ſeveral cantons,

‡ Prague, 80,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 4, long. 14 19.
* Olmutz, 11,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 32, long. 17 9.
† Bautzen, 7,500 inhabitants. Lat. 51 10, long. 15 25.
‡ Breſlaw, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6 30, long. 17 5.

and each canton ſeveral towns or lordſhips, is governed by a director. And all three circles have a common directory.

4. Several abbies, burgs, and villages of the empire; as the abbies of Otterbeuren, St. Ulrich, of St. Afra in Swabia; Cappenberg and Etten in Weſtphalia; the burgs Friedberg and Gienhauſen in Upper Rhine. Thirty-nine imperial villages near Leutkirch in Swabia; the imperial villages Gochſheim and Seenfeldt in Franconia; and Sultzbach and Soden in Upper Rhine.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains of Germany are the Vogeſian mountains in the circles of the Rhine; the Schwartzwald (Black foreſt) and Alb in Swabia; the Alps and the Kalenberg in Auſtria; the White mountains between Moravia and Hungary; the Reiſen Gebirge (Giant mountain) in Sileſia; the Fichtelberg in Franconia; and the Hartz, with the Brocken, in Lower Saxony. Some of the higheſt mountains, eſpecially of the Alps, are continually covered with ſnow and ice.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Danube, Rhine, Weſer, Elbe, and Oder. The Danube, or Donau, is the largeſt river in Europe. It riſes in Swabia. In its long and rapid courſe of about 1520 miles, from weſt to eaſt, through Germany, Hungary, and the Turkiſh empire, it receives a great number of navigable ſtreams, and at length falls into the Black Sea. Its moſt conſiderable branches in Germany are, the Nab, Iler, and Inn, in Bavaria; the Moravia in Moravia; and the Ens, Drava, and Save in Auſtria. The Rhine riſes in Switzerland, and, in its courſe through France, Germany, and the United Netherlands, takes in, on the eaſt ſide, the rivers Neckar in Swabia, Main, watering Franconia and the circles of the Rhine, Roer and Lippe in Weſtphalia; and, on the weſt ſide, the Moſelle, which riſes in France, and, paſſing thro' the circles of the Rhine, falls into the Rhine at Coblentz; and the Maeſe, which alſo riſes in France, and runs through Weſtphalia, the Auſtrian, and United Netherland. The Rhine empties itſelf into the North ſea. The Weſer riſes from the two united rivers Werra and Fulda, of which the firſt has its ſources in Henneberg in Franconia, and the ſecond in Fulda in Upper Rhine. It takes in the Allen in Lower Saxony, and falls into the north ſea. The Elbe riſes in the Rieſen Gebirge (Giant mountain) in Sileſia, receives in Bohemia the Moldau and Eger, in Upper Saxony the Mulde and Saale, and in Lower Saxony the Havel and Ilmenau; and empties itſelf into the North ſea. The Oder riſes in Moravia, and, paſſing through Sileſia, Mark Brandenburg, and Pomerania, falls into the Baltic ſea. Its principal branches are, the Rober in Sileſia, the Neiſſe in Luſatia, and the Warta in Brandenburg. Beſides theſe five principal rivers, with their chief branches, we are to take notice of the Ems in Weſtphalia, and the Scheld in the Auſtrian Netherlands. Both are navigable, and fall into the North ſea.

LAKES.] The chief Lakes are, the Boden See (lake of Conſtance) through which the Rhine paſſes, between Swabia, Auſtria, and Switzerland; the Chiem See in Bavaria; the Zilknizer See in Auſtria; the Dummer See in Weſtphalia; and the Seeburg See in Upper Saxony.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] The ſouthern and middle parts of Germany are very mountainous, full of large foreſts, and well watered by brooks, rivers, and lakes. The ſoil is in general very fertile, and well improved. In the northern parts the land is more even, and towards the ſea very flat and low; but alſo abounding in rivers, lakes, and foreſts. The fertility of the ſoil is here not ſo general as in the ſouthern and middle parts; and great ſandy and barren tracts are interſperſed among fruitful diſtricts of rich low lands and marſhes.

The climate, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation north and ſouth, but alſo from the mountains and foreſts, and according to the improvement of the ſoil. Heat and cold are not ſo intenſe as in Penſylvania, but greater than in England. The mercury in Fahrenheit's thermo-

meter ſometimes riſes to 90 degrees and upwards, and falls below 0*. Northweſt and ſouthweſt winds uſually bring rain, and eaſterly winds dry weather. The air is in moſt parts ſalubrious. The Spring of the year is commonly more pleaſant and temperate than in Pennſylvania; but in Autumn the weather is not ſo clear, ſteady, and agreeable as with us. The tranſition from cold to heat, and *vice verſa*, is in general not ſo ſudden as here.

DOMESTIC, WILD, AND OTHER ANIMALS.] Domeſtic animals are, horſes, oxen, cows, ſheep, goats, aſſes, mules, hogs, dogs, cats, ſwans, turkies, geeſe, ducks, hens, doves, &c. The beſt horſes are in Holſtein, Mecklenburg, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia, and Saltzburg in Bavaria. Aſſes and mules are, in ſome parts, chiefly employed for carrying loads.

Wild and other animals are, bears, wolves, lynxes, wild boars, ſtags, roebucks, chamois (gemſen) foxes, hares, rabbits, badgers, weaſels, martins, corn-rats, beavers, fiſh-otters; and, of the feathered kind, woodcocks, (auerhahne), pheaſants, partridges, wild geeſe, ducks, &c. There are many large foreſts in Germany, in which the boar, ſtag, and other wild game, are raiſed in great abundance, and hunted by the princes and nobility at ſtated ſeaſons. Hares abound in ſome parts of Saxony, eſpecially in the county of Barby, where they are hunted and killed at the proper ſeaſons, commonly in the month of December. They are ſo numerous, that they are ſeen in whole herds or troops of twenty, thirty, forty, and upwards, grazing together in fields, like ſheep; and ſeveral hundreds are ſhot at ſuch huntings. Bears, wolves, lynxes, and beavers, are not numerous.

In the rivers, brooks, lakes, and ponds, are the following fiſh; ſturgeon, ſhad, ſalmon, pike, carp, trout, lamprey, perch, eel, crawfiſh, and many others. The moſt common of theſe are pike, ſalmon, trout, and carp. The latter are in Upper Luſatia in great abundance, and of the beſt quality. They are chiefly raiſed and kept in ponds enclоſed for that purpoſe, which are made by encompaſſing a piece of ground of 10, 20, or 40 acres, and upwards, with dams. Theſe ponds are ſupplied with freſh water from brooks or ſprings. When the water is drained off, they yield for ſome years excellent crops of wheat, oats, &c. after which they are again filled with water for fiſh ponds. Pearls in muſcle ſhells are fiſhed for in ſome brooks and rivers, particularly in Bohemia and in Voigtland in Upper Saxony.

FRUITS, TREES, AND OTHER VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The fruits are, apples, pears, cherries, plums, walnuts, hazlenuts, figs, peaches, apricots, and, in the ſouthern parts, alſo almonds, cheſnuts, oranges, citrons, lemons, &c. The moſt common foreſt and other trees, are, oak, pine, fir, hemlock, larch, birch, beech, linden, maple, aſh, &c. Great quantities of ſhip and other timber are carried down the Rhine to Holland. In the middle and ſouthern parts, the vine is cultivated with great ſucceſs. The beſt German wines are produced on the rivers Rhine and Moſelle in the circles of the Rhine, and on the Rivers Neckar and Locher in Swabia. Thoſe of Franconia, Auſtria, and Saxony, are alſo very good. Mulberry trees were introduced in the laſt century, and ſince that time, have been chiefly planted in Auſtria, Swabia, and the electorates of Brandenburg, Saxony, and Hanover. In ſome of theſe countries, conſiderable quantities of ſilk, of a good quality, are made. There are raiſed wheat, ſpelt, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, millet, peaſe, beans, potatoes, hops, tobacco, hemp, flax, manna, ſaffron, crapp, woad, maize or

* On the 5th of Auguſt, 1783, Fahrenheit's thermometer roſe to 100 degrees at Barby, near Magdeburg in 52 10 N. lat. Other meteorological obſervations ſhow that in

	Therm. Fahren.		Barometer.			
	gr.	leaſt..	gr.	leaſt.	gr.	leaſt.
Ulm, in 48 23 N. lat.	98	2				
Goettingen, in 51 32 N. lat.	84	5	28	5	26	7
Berlin, in 52 31 N. lat.	83	5	29	11	28	1

Indian corn, and rice in ſome places; and of culinary and medicinal plants, cabbage, (of which the ſour-krout is made, ſo much uſed by the Germans, and which captain Cook ſo highly recommended to all ſea-faring people as the beſt antiſcorbutic), cucumbers, pumpkins, colliflowers, radiſhes, turnips, carrots, beets, parſnips, mangel-roots, cellery, and other roots, aniſeed, cummim, thyme, ſage, mint, fennel, lavender, &c.

METALS, MINERALS, MINERAL WATERS, AND PRECIOUS STONES. Gold mines are met with in Auſtria, Bavaria, and Upper Saxony; and there is gold duſt found in the rivers Rhine, Danube, Elbe. No country in Europe produces in proportion ſo much ſilver as Germany. The richeſt ſilver mines are in Upper and Lower Saxony, and Auſtria. Beſides gold and ſilver, Germany has alſo mines of quickſilver (in Auſtria), copper, tin, lead, iron, zink, biſmuth, antimony, kobalt, marble, alabaſter, ſulphur, nitre, vitriol, alum, bitumen, pitcoal, and ſaltpetre, beſides ſalt mines, and ſalt-ſprings. The principal ſalt-ſprings and ſalt-works are in the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg in Bavaria, in Hall and Saltz in Swabia, in the county of Hanau in Lower Rhine, in Halle, Saltza, &c. in Upper Saxony, in Luneburg in Lower Saxony, and in ſome parts of Bohemia and Auſtria. Near Hall, in Tyrol, are very rich and profitable ſalt-mines. In Weſtphalia, and Upper and Lower Saxony, much turf is dug for fuel. Mineral ſprings and medicinal waters and baths are to be found in almoſt all the mountainous parts of Germany. Their number amounts to ſeveral hundreds. The moſt famous and frequented are the waters and baths in Pyrmont, Aix, and Spa in Weſtphalia; Selters in Triers, Lower Rhine; Carlſbad, Toplitz, Sedlitz and Seidſchitz in Bohemia; Lauchſtadt in Upper Saxony; Warmbrunn in Sileſia; Baden in Auſtria; Wildbad in Bavaria; and others. Of the tranſparent precious gems or ſtones, viz diamonds, rubies, garnets, ſapphires, topazes, emeralds, chryſolites, amethyſts, hyacinths, and beryls, ſome of each ſort are to be found in various parts of Germany. The diamonds of Bohemia, Sileſia, and Auſtria, though much inferior in hardneſs and tranſparency to thoſe of India and Brazil, are held in great value. In 1775, a diamond was found in Bohemia, weighing in the rough 42 1-2 carats (7 dwt. 2 gr). The ſame country produces rubies, or carbuncles, and garnets of the firſt quality. The Bohemian garnets are preferred to thoſe of India. In England they pay 70 per cent. more for the former than for the latter*. There are cryſtal mines of various kinds in Bohemia, Auſtria, Sileſia, and Lower Saxony. The cryſtal is uſed in making and decorating ſconces, looking glaſſes, buckles, ſeals, ſleeve buttons, and a variety of trinkets, and little ornaments. Some are tranſparent, without any colour; others are of a blue, green, or yellow colour. The inferior precious ſtones, which are opaque or half tranſparent, ſuch as the agate, cornelian, chalcedonian, opal, onyx, various kinds of jaſper, lapis lazuli, &c are alſo found in Bohemia, Auſtria, and Sileſia, and in the mines of Upper and Lower Saxony, and ſome of them in abundance.

NUMBER OF INHABITANTS] Germany is one of the moſt populous countries in Europe. The German geographers differ in fixing the number of its inhabitants. Buſching and Gatterer compute them at 24 millions and upwards. Fabri reckons about 30 millions; and others 26 millions. The laſt number is probably the neareſt the truth How this number is divided among the ten circles, appears from the ſubſequent table which is taken out of a book, entitled *Statiſtiſche Ueberſicht der fornehmſten deutſchen und ſæmtlichen Europaeiſchen Staaten*, publiſhed in 1786. The table ſhows, at the ſame time, the extent of each circle in German and Engliſh ſquare miles, and the average number of inhabitants to one ſquare mile.

* Cramen's Europens produckte. Deſſau, 1782, p. 261.

Circles, &c.	Square miles. German.	Square miles. Eng*.	Inhabitants.	No. of people to a sq. m. German.	No. of people to a sq. m. Eng.
Auſtria	2145	45,388	4,182,000	1949	92
Bavaria	1020	21,583	1,600,000	1570	74
Swabia	729	15,426	1,800,000	2469	116
Franconia	484	10,241	1,000,000	2066	97
Upper Rhine	500	10,580	1,000,000	2000	94
Lower Rhine	458	9,691	1,100,000	2401	113
Burgundy or Auſtrian Netherlands	469	9,924	1,880,000	4008	189
Weſtphalia	1250	26,450	2,300,000	1840	86
Lower Saxony	1280	27,085	2,100,000	1640	77
Upper Saxony	2000	42,320	3,700,000	1850	87
Bohemia	961	20,335	2,266,000	2358	111
Moravia	396	8,379	1,137,000	2871	135
Sileſia	720	15,235	1,800,000	2500	118
Luſatia	180	3,809	400,000	2222	105
Total	12,592	266,446	26,265,000		

By this table it appears, that the Auſtrian Netherlands, or circle of Burgundy, is the moſt populous part of Germany, and the circle of Bavaria the leaſt, the former having 189 inhabitants to each Engliſh ſquare mile, and the latter only 74. Next to the Auſtrian Netherlands, the beſt peopled countries are, Moravia, Sileſia, Swabia, Lower Rhine, Bohemia, and Luſatia. The latter of theſe, containing 3809 Engliſh ſquare miles, has 400,000 inhabitants, which is not much leſs than the population in Pennſylvania, where the number of inhabitants, according to the enumeration made in 1791, was 434,373. Should Pennſylvania, which contains about 44,900 ſquare miles, become equally well ſettled with Luſatia, viz. contain at the rate of 105 perſons to each ſquare mile, it will have no leſs than 4,714,500 inhabitants, which number exceeds the preſent population of all the United States together, which, according to the laſt cenſus, was 3,909,526. At preſent, there are in Pennſylvania about 10 perſons to each ſquare mile.

Language.] The German language has one common origin with the Low Dutch, Engliſh, Daniſh, and Swediſh languages. They are all chiefly derived from the old Teutonic, as their mother tongue. The German varies ſo much in its dialects, that the people in the ſouthern provinces can hardly underſtand thoſe in the northern. The German ſpoken in the ſouthern and middle parts is called High German, or High Dutch (Hoch Deutſch), of which that dialect which is ſpoken in Upper Saxony, eſpecially in Leipſic, Dreſden, &c. is eſteemed the moſt pure and elegant, being moſt agreeable to the ſtyle and manner of expreſſion adopted by the beſt German authors, or heard from the pulpit, at the bar, or in the politeſt companies, throughout the whole empire. In Lower Saxony and Weſtphalia, the country people ſpeak a language, called plalt Deutſch, flat German, or Low Dutch, but greatly differing from the Low Dutch ſpoken in the United Netherlands.

The Lord's prayer is in German as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel, dein name werde geheiliget. Dein reich komme. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel, alſo auch auf erden. Unſer täglich brod gib uns heute, und vergib uns unſere ſchulden, wie wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Und fuehre uns nicht in verſuchung, ſondern*

* To reduce German square miles into English, multiply them by 21.16, one German square mile being equal to (4 3-5 × 4 3-5) 21.16 or 21 1-6 English square miles.

erlœſe uns von dem bœſen. Denn dein iſt das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit in ewigkeit. Amen.

In the eaſtern part of Germany, where the inhabitants are chiefly deſcendants of the old Sclavonians or Sarmatians, the Sclavonian language is ſpoken in various dialects. The principal of theſe are the Bohemian and Vandalian languages. The firſt is ſpoken throughout Bohemia, and in ſome parts of Moravia and Sileſia; and the latter in ſome parts of Luſatia, Upper Saxony, and Auſtria. The Poliſh language, which is likewiſe a Sclavonian tongue, is much in uſe among the country people in Upper Sileſia. In thoſe parts of Germany which border on France and Italy, the French and Italian languages are much uſed by people of all claſſes.

CONSTITUTION.] The German empire contains about 300 great and ſmall ſtates and commonalties, all of which, by different kinds of connexions and confederations, make one common empire, or political body, though they are not ſo cloſely conſolidated as the Dutch Netherlands, or the United States of America. Among theſe ſtates is one kingdom, (Bohemia), one archduchy (Auſtria), ſeveral electorates, palatinates, dukedoms, landgraviates, and margraviates, and a great number of principalities, counties, and baronies. All theſe are ſubject to ſecular princes, in whoſe number are five kings, viz. the kings of Bohemia, Pruſſia, Britain, Denmark, and Sweden. The government in their lands, as well as in the ſtates ſubject to ſecular electors, dukes, counts, &c. reſembles in general that of limited hereditary monarchies, though differently modified. The ſtates ſubject to eccleſiaſtical princes, as the three electorates of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, the archbiſhopric of Saltzburgh, ſeveral biſhoprics, abbies, and provoſtſhips, &c. reſemble limited elective monarchies, and are governed almoſt in the ſame manner as the ſecular ſtates.

In the free imperial cities, each of which may be conſidered in ſome reſpects as a ſeparate ſmall ſtate or republic, the government is either ariſtocratical or democratical.

The general government of the whole Germanic body, as comprehending all theſe ſecular and eccleſiaſtical ſtates and ſmall republics, is veſted in the emperor, diet, and two ſupreme courts of the empire.

EMPEROR AND ELECTORS.] The emperor, as the ſupreme head of the German empire, is elected by a few of its firſt princes, who excluſively have this right, and on this account are called electors, *Churfuerſten* or *Wahlfuerſten*. When the emperor Charles IV. in the year 1355, confirmed the rights and privileges of the electors, by an act called the golden bull, which is one of the fundamental laws of the German empire, and obtained its name from the golden box, wherein the ſeal affixed to it was included, there were ſeven electors, three of whom were eccleſiaſtical, the archbiſhops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; and four ſecular, the king of Bohemia, the count Palatine on the Rhine, the duke of Saxony, of the younger or Albertinian line, and the Margrave of Brandenburg, of the eldeſt line. In 1648 an eighth electoral dignity was created in favour of the count Palatine, who, twenty five years before, had been deprived of his electoral dignity, the fifth in rank, which was transferred to the duke of Bavaria. In 1692, the duke of Brunſwic Lunenberg, father of George I. king of Britain received from the emperor Leopold I. the ninth electoral dignity. After the death of the laſt duke and elector of Bavaria, in the year 1777, without children, one electoral dignity became extinct, and his lands devolved on his neareſt kinſman, the elector Palatine, who, ſince that time, bears the name of elector Palatine of Bavaria. At preſent there are, therefore, only eight electors*, each of whom has a particular office, which they perform at the election of an emperor, and, on other occaſions, by

* According to the laws of the empire, the number of electors being required to be odd, for the ſake of a majority; the duke of Vurtemburg, or the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, are looked upon as candidates for the ninth electoral dignity.

deputies. The three eccleſiaſtical electors of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, are high chancellors of the holy Roman empire, (*Erzkanzler des heiligen, Rœmiſchen Reichs.*) Mentz through Germany, Treves through France and Arles*, and Cologne through Italy. The elector and king of Bohemia is high-cupbearer; the elector Palatine of Bavaria, great-ſerver or officer who ſerves out the feaſts; the elector of Saxony, great-marſhal; the elector of Brandenburg, king of Pruſſia, great-chamberlain, and the elector of Hanover, king of Britain, arch-treaſurer.

The place of election of an emperor, is Frankfort on the Maine. The eccleſiaſtical electors appear in perſon, and the ſecular electors ſend deputies. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation which he ſigns at his elections. The coronation is performed by the elector of Mentz or of Cologne, formerly always at Aix la-chapelle; but the two laſt coronations of the emperors Leopold II. and Francis II. were at Frankfort. The imperial title is, "by the grace of God elected Roman emperor, at all times augmenter of the empire, in Germany king"

The rights of the emperor are, to convoke the diet, to preſide in it by his commiſſiary, to grant the fiefs of the empire, which become vacant, to new poſſeſſors, and inveſt them therewith, to create new electors, dukes, princes, counts, and barons of the empire, to grant certain privileges, franchiſes, and immunities to ſtates and members of the empire, to give charters to univerſities, &c. to adminiſter juſtice by the Aulic court, and to put in execution the determinations of the imperial chamber.

During the reign of an emperor, his ſucceſſor may be elected, whoſe title is, "Roman king, at all times augmenter of the empire, king in Germany." If an emperor dies, without his ſucceſſor having been previouſly elected, which was the caſe at the death of Joſeph II. in 1790, and Leopold II. in 1790, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria perform the imperial functions during the vacancy, under the title of adminiſtrators or vicars of the empire; the elector of Saxony in thoſe parts of Germany, where the old Saxon laws prevail, viz. in Upper and Lower Saxony, the greateſt part of Weſtphalia, and a part of Franconia; and the elector Palatine of Bavaria, in Bavaria, Swabia, Upper and Lower Rhine, the greateſt part of Franconia, and in ſome parts of Weſtphalia, in which countries the old Frank laws are uſed.

Though the imperial dignity is elective, and was therefore conferred, in former times, indiſcriminately on princes of ſeveral of the moſt illuſtrious houſes of Germany; yet, ſince the year 1434, the elections have been always made in favour of princes of the houſe of Auſtria, except in one caſe, in 1742, when the duke or elector of Bavaria was created emperor.

DIET.] The diet, or the general aſſembly of all the ſtates of the German empire, is compoſed of the emperor, and the three colleges of the empire *Reichs-Collegia*. The firſt of theſe is the *electoral college*, conſiſting of the eight electors, of whom each has one vote. The ſecond is the *college of princes*, and is compoſed of the princes, prelates, and counts of the empire. There are in it 94 princes, 61 ſecular and 33 eccleſiaſtical, each having one vote. The prelates are divided into two benches, that of Swabia, and that of the Rhine. They give their votes collectively, each bench having only one vote. The counts are divided into four colleges, Wetterau or Rhine, Franconia, Swabia, and Weſtphalia. They vote alſo collectively, each college having one vote. The number of all the votes in the college of princes is 100. The third college of the empire is that of *the free imperial cities*. Their number is 50, and each has one vote. The ſit on two benches, 13 on that of the Rhine, and 37 on that of Swabia. Neither the emperor, nor the ſtates of the empire, appear in per-

* The kingdom of Arles, or Burgundy, comprehended the ſouthern part of France, Swiſſerland, and Savoy, and was, after the year 1033, for a time, part of the German empire.

ſon in the diet. The emperor ſends two commiſſaries, a principal, and aſſiſtant, who act in his name; and the electors, princes, prelates, counts, and imperial cities ſend delegates. In the electoral college preſides the elector of Mentz; in the college of princes, the archduke of Auſtria, and the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, alternately; and, in the college of the imperial cities, the city wherein the diet is held. Each of the three colleges has its ſeſſions in ſeparate houſes or chambers; and reſolutions are paſſed in each by a majority of votes, ſome caſes of the greateſt importance excepted. If all the three colleges concur in a reſolution by a majority of one vote, it is called a propoſal, or a report of the empire, which, by a decree of ratification from the emperor, through his commiſſaries, receives the validity of a law or reſolve of the empire.

In former times, diets were held at ſuch times, and in ſuch places as the emperor, who attended in perſon, found it proper to convoke and keep them. It was then a fundamental law, that the firſt diet after the coronation of a new emperor, ſhould be held at Nuremberg. Since the year 1662, the diet has been held continually at Ratiſbon, without a new convocation.

SUPREME COURTS OF JUDICATURE.] The imperial-chamber court, *Reichſkamer Gericht*, and the Aulic court, *Reichſhofdath*, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire. The imperial-chamber court reſides at Wetzlar, and conſiſts of a chamber judge, *Kammer Richter*, two preſidents, and ſeveral aſſeſſors or aſſociate judges. Their number, by the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1548, was appointed to be 50. By a reſolve of the diet, in 1729, it was reduced to 25. At preſent there are only 17 aſſeſſors, nine of the Roman catholic, and eight of the proteſtant church. The Aulic court, which is held at Vienna, was originally a court for the dominions of Auſtria. With the increaſe of the power of this houſe in the German empire, the juriſdiction of this court was likewiſe entended: and more cauſes and appeals are now brought before the Aulic council than before the imperial chamber. The ſupreme head or chancellor of the Aulic court is the emperor himſelf, to whom report is made by the court in all caſes of importance. It conſiſts of a preſident or vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a number of Aulic counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers.

During a vacancy in the imperial throne, the elector palatine and the elector of Saxony, as vicars of the empire, have, at their reſpective reſidences in Munchen and Dreſden, courts of judicature, before which all ſuch cauſes are brought, as are uſually determined by the Aulic court. If one of the ſupreme courts of the empire pronounces ſentence againſt offenders and diſturbers of the public peace, the emperor, by virtue of his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince, whoſe troops live at free quarters upon the eſtate of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expenſes.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religions in the German empire are the Roman catholic, and the proteſtant or evangelical. The latter is divided into the Lutheran and the Calviniſt. All the members of theſe churches have, ſince the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1648, enjoyed equal rights and liberties.

The Roman catholics in Germany, acknowledged the ſupremacy of the pope, with reſpect to ſpiritual and eccleſiaſtical affairs, though his power is throughout, Bavaria excepted, far more limited than in moſt other catholic countries. This has eſpecially been the caſe ſince the reign of the emperor Joſeph II. who made great alterations in the government of the church in his own dominions, diminiſhing the papal power, and augmenting that of the archbiſhops and biſhops. There are in Germany (the Auſtrian Netherlands and Sileſia included) eight Roman catholic archbiſhops, and thirty-five biſhops, as follows:

1. The archbiſhopric of Mentz, in Lower Rhine, is the firſt ſpiritual elector. In former times, almoſt all Germany was ſubject to his eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. At pre-

ſent his ſuffragans are the biſhops of Worms, Spire, and Fulda, in Upper Rhine, Conſtance and Augſburg in Swabia, Wurtſburg and Eichſtadt in Franconia, Paderborn in Weſtphalia, and Hildeſheim in Lower Saxony. The biſhop of Chur, in Switſerland, is likewiſe under the ſpiritual juriſdicton of the archbiſhop of Mentz, as was alſo the biſhop of Straſburg, in Alſace, before the French revolution.

2. The archbiſhop of Treves, in Lower Rhine, the ſecond ſpiritual elector. He has now no biſhops ſubject to him. The three biſhops of Mets, Toul, and Verdun, in France, were formerly under his juriſdiction.

3. The archbiſhop of Cologne, in Lower Rhine, the third ſpiritual elector. His ſuffragans are the three biſhops of Liege, Munſter, and Oſnaburg, all in Weſtphalia.

4. The archbiſhop of Saltzburg, in Bavaria. His ſuffragrans are the eight biſhops of Frayſing, Ratiſbon, and Chiem ſee, in Bavaria. Brixen, Gurk, Seckan, Levant, and Loeben, in Auſtria.

5. The archbiſhop of Vienna, in Auſtria, to whom is ſubject the biſhop of Neuſtadt, in the ſame circle.

6. the archbiſhop of Prague, in Bohemia. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Leumeritz and Konigſgratz, in Bohemia.

7. The archbiſhop of Goritz, in Auſtria. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Trent, Laybach, Liben, and Trieſte, in Auſtria.

8. The archbiſhop of Mechlin, in the Auſtrian Netherland. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Namur, Rourmonde.

The biſhops of Paſſau in Bavaria, of Breſlau in Sileſia, and of Olmutz in Moravia, are not ſubject to any archbiſhop, but are under the immediate juriſdiction of the pope.

All the archbiſhops and biſhops, thoſe in the Auſtrian dominions excepted, are princes of the empire, and, in ſome reſpects, ſovereign regents in the territories belonging to their reſpective ſees. The biſhops of Brixen and Trent are the only two in the Auſtrian dominons, who are princes of the empire, and exerciſe a kind of temporal juriſdiction, though under the ſovereignty of Auſtria.

The proteſtant church had its origin in Germany, and was firſt introduced by Martin Luther, in 1517. At a diet, held at Spire, in 1529, it was decreed, that a general council of the church ſhould be convoked, and that all innovations and alterations in church affairs ſhould be left to its deciſion, and till then be deemed illegal. The ſtates of the empire who had adopted Luther's doctrines, and introduced them into their countries, proteſted in form againſt this decree, from whence they were called proteſtants, which name they themſelves did not immediately adopt, but called themſelves the evangelical. In 1530, they preſented their confeſſion of faith, written by Luther and Melancthon, to the emperor Charles V. and the ſtates of the empire, aſſembled in a diet at Augſburg, from which place it has obtained the name of the Augſburg or Auguſtan confeſſion.—Some differences which afterwards aroſe among the proteſtants, with reſpect to ſome points of doctrine, (chiefly conſubſtantiation and predeſtination,) and church diſcipline, occaſioned a diviſion in their church. Thoſe who adhered ſtrictly to the Auguſtan confeſſion, and to the doctrine and diſcipline of Luther, were called Lutherans, and thoſe whoſe followed the tenets of Calvin, and the church rites introduced by him, were denominated Calviniſts. The latter called themſelves Reformed. The Calviniſt churches in Holland and Switzerland, and the church of Scotland, agree in the moſt eſſential points of doctrine and diſcipline with the Calviniſts in Germany; as the church of England, in her articles of faith and diſcipline, is very ſimilar to the Lutheran, which in ſome countries, as Denmark and Sweden, is alſo an epiſcopal church.

In both diviſions of the proteſtant church in Germany, each prince or ſovereign

of a ſtate is, in ſome reſpects, conſidered as head of the church within his own territories. He has the ſupreme juriſdiction in celeſtial affairs, which he exerciſes by means of courts called conſiſtories, conſiſting partly of clergymen, partly of laymen. Thoſe divines, to whom are delegated the special care of a certain diſtrict, and the ſuperintendance of the clergy therein, are called, among the Calviniſts, inſpectors or provoſts, and among the Lutherans, ſuperintendants. The latter came, in ſome reſpects, in the place of the biſhops, as the ſuperintendants-general are inſtead of the former archbiſhops.

The Lutheran religion is predominant in Upper and Lower Saxony, Luſatia, part of Franconia, Wurtemberg and Baden in Swabia, and in ſome parts of Sileſia. The Calviniſts are chiefly in Heſſe, the Palatinate, and other countries on the Rhine, in Weſtphalia, and in ſome parts of Upper Saxony.

The proteſtant epiſcopal church, called Unitas Fratrum, or the United Brethren, have their chief ſettlements in Germany. Of theſe, the oldeſt and principal is Herrnhut in Upper Luſatia, begun in 1722, by emigrants out of Moravia, under the patronage of count Zinzendorf. The emigrants were deſcendants of the ancient Unitas Fratrum, or United Brethren, in Bohemia and Moravia, who, following chiefly the doctrines of Wickliff, John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, had begun an oppoſition to the church of Rome, before Luther or Calvin.

The renewed Unitas Fratrum, or the preſent brethren's church, received into their unity, beſides the deſcendants of the old Moravian and Bohemian brethren, many members of the Lutheran, Calviniſt, and other proteſtant churches. More ſettlements were made in Germany and other countries, and miſſions were eſtabliſhed for converting the heathens. In articles of Faith, the brethren's church adheres to the Auguſtan confeſſion. With reſpect to church government and diſcipline, it has adopted many of the rights and regulations of the ancient Unitas Fratrum, from whom they have alſo received their epiſcopal ſucceſſion.

There is a great number of Jews in the German empire. In ſome great cities, as Prague, Frankfort on the Maine, Altena &c. they are very numerous, and have ſeveral ſynagogues. In other places, only a few families are tolerated, and theſe live under many, and very often oppreſſive reſtrictions. In ſeveral countries they are entirely forbidden to ſettle. The emperor Joſeph II. aboliſhed ſeveral grievous regulations reſpecting the Jews in his dominions; but ſubjected them to military ſervice. Moſt of them live by trade and commerce.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. The Germans in their perſons are tall fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony are remarkable for their beauty.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes; which, in faſhion, are nearly the ſame as in France and England. The richer ſort of people were formerly very fond of gold and ſilver lace, which are now grown into diſuſe. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The burghers, peaſantry, and labourers dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to the climate, ſeaſon of the year, and their employments, convenience and opulence. The ſtoves they make uſe of in winter, are a cheap and comfortable contrivance to warm their appartments equally throughout; they are not, however, ſo convenient and eligible in many reſpects, as thoſe of late years adopted in Philadelphia, and known by the name of Franklin ſtoves. In the northern parts of Germany, they ſleep, during the winter, between two beds, the upper one of down, which, by uſe, becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own gran-

deur; but, in general, the circumſtances of the common people are far preferable to what thoſe of the French were before the late revolution; upon the whole they are certainly improving.

The Germans are generally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. In general, they are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert even in the field of battle. It has been frequently aſſerted, that their ſoldiers have not the military arbour, nor their officers that courage and genius, which diſtinguiſh ſome neighbouring nations. Be that as it may, it is certain, that, within the preſent century, both the Auſtrians and Perſians have performed ſuch great military exploits, as have aſtoniſhed all Europe.

Induſtry and application, perſeverance and economy, added to a ſteadineſs of principle, that is not eaſily ſhaken, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation. This is chiefly to be attributed to the care they beſtow on the education of their youth. The pooreſt children are early taught to follow their occupations with diligence and punctuality, and to endeavour to approve themſelves, in all reſpects, quiet, orderly, and uſeful members of ſociety. The fickleneſs of mind, and fondneſs for novelty, which characterizes the French and Engliſh nations (though in very different ways) has never been ſo obvious among the Germans. They are rather diſpoſed to be cheerful and contented with their ſituation, and to remove any diſadvantage they may have to contend with. Hence, riots, tumults, and inſurrections are very rare in Germany; and the diſtractions and revolutions that occur in other countries, ſeldom have any conſiderable influence upon this vaſt and populous empire.

As Germany affords great plenty of wine and proviſions of every kind, it is no wonder that the rich live rather luxuriouſly. They drink pretty freely after dinner; yet commonly finiſh the repaſt with coffee. No people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days, accompanied with muſic, of which they are very fond.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradeſmen are very civil and obliging. But the German husbands are not quite ſo complaiſant to their wives, as is uſual in ſome other countries. Among the labouring poor, the women, eſpecially in ſome parts, are obliged almoſt conſtantly to attend their huſbands in the field, and aſſiſt them in their work.

Germany being governed by a great number of ſovereign and independent princes, each of whom has, neceſſarily, ſeparate political views and intereſts, which not unfrequently claſh with each other; it is no wonder that the maſs of the people have not that ſtrong prepoſſeſſion in favour of their own country, which is found ſo ſtrikingly to exiſt under moſt other governments. The Germans are not fettered with thoſe abſurd and contemptible prejudices, through which moſt nations are ſo prone to extol themſelves, and to diſparage and degrade all others. A German does not deſpiſe, he rather eſteems, a man, becauſe he is a foreigner.

It happens, however, that thoſe very cauſes, which have given riſe to this liberality of ſentiment, for which the Germans are ſo juſtly famous, and which undoubtedly forms one of the traits in their national character, have in combination with others, produced conſequences of another nature. The nobility are very numerous, all the ſons of noblemen inheriting their fathers' titles; but very often without any eſtates to ſupport their dignity. Not only their reigning, but the merely titular princes, think mercantile affairs and the cultivation of land much beneath their attention, apparently regarding themſelves as a ſuperior order of beings. Many of them are conſequently very poor. With theſe, therefore, na-

tional pride (or patriotism) sinks into personal pride, which is heightened by the extreme adulation too frequently paid to them by their inferiors in rank. They are ridiculously attached to titles, ancestry, and show, and easily enter into their own armies, and those of other sovereigns, as the best means of gratifying their ambition. It is believed, however, that these follies are gradually wearing off; and trade and agriculture are now deemed more honourable than formerly.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England and the united states of North America; viz. billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to Spa, Pyrmont, and other places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna especially live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by a single horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers ribands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night time, servants ride before the sledges with torches, and a gentleman standing on the sledge behind guides the horse.

LITERATURE AND LEARNED MEN.] Literature is at present in a very advancing state throughout the greatest part of Germany. No country has produced a greater variety of authors; and there is scarcely any-where a more general taste for reading.

Germany is the only country where literary fairs are held. The number of new books printed there, and exposed to sale at Leipsic fair only, amounted, in the year 1791, to 3504*; and it is very probable, as the editors of the Hamburg Political Journal assert, that the yearly literary productions of all the European states, France and England excepted, taken together, are inferior in number to those of Germany. A very large proportion of these are published at Leipsic, Berlin, and Vienna. Though, as may be supposed, abundance of these works have little merit or novelty to recommend them, yet many appear from time to time, which are deservedly esteemed for their valuable contents, masterly composition, and elegant style. The number of those German authors who have distinguished themselves in the republic of letters, is so great, that we can do little more than barely mention the names of some of the principal of them. But we shall first take a short cursory view of the progress and tendency of literature in general in Germany, since the time of Luther.

From that period till about the reign of the emperor Charles VI. Germany, by her divines, and by her religious divisions, was so much involved in disputes about systematical theology, that few, comparatively, paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. Religion, being the subject of gneral discussion, and the cause or pretext made use of, for most of their wars, naturally employed the pens of the learned. Much was written in the way of controversy. But their works, being heavy and voluminous, were disregarded by other nations; and the disputes themselves, which gave birth to them, having since nearly subsided, these writings (the best of them excepted) are no longer in request, even in Germany itself. During this period, the language also and the style of writing became ridiculous. Through a false taste they continually introduced Latin, French, and other foreign words into their German compositions, which, though not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected.

* See Hamburg Political Journal, vol. ii. p. 1167.

It was about the year 1730, (as before hinted), that the profpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfe opened the way to a better philofophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottfched, an author and profeffor at Leipfic, who has been greatly honoured by the late king of Pruffia, introduced a better tafte of writing, by publifhing a new German grammar, and by inftituting a literary fociety, for polifhing and reftoring to its purity the German language, and promoting the ftudy of the belles lettres. He was quickly followed by many others who in different places purfued the fame objects. Among thefe, the late profeffor Gellert, one of the moft elegant of the German authors, and one of the moft eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their tafte. His mode of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines underwent at the ſame time a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by theſe models: and Moſheim, Jeruſalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, Leſs, Sturm, &c. have publiſhed ſermons which would do honour to any country. Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers and other works appeared, calculated for perſons of a literary taſte, and for the entertainment of the public at large. Many of theſe have ſince attained to great celebrity, and are read with avidity by foreignors. Already enriched with numerous tranſlations of all the famous productions of antiquity, with notes critical and explanatory, the Germans are now continually encreaſing their fund of knowledge and improvement, by tranſlations of the beſt works of the moderns, particularly of the Engliſh and the French. Their language too has arrived at a very high degree of improvement, and is now adopted in moſt of the courts of their princes, inſtead of the French, which was formerly the court language in moſt parts of Germany. The preſent king of Pruſſia is its decided patron, as was alſo the late emperor Joſeph II. It is of late years become the faſhionable language at the courts of Ruſſia and Denmark; and will probably be more than hitherto ſtudied by foreign nations. Adelung's German dictionary, publiſhed a few years ſince, in five volumes quarto, is, perhaps, the moſt complete work of the kind to be met with in any language.

We ſhall now proceed to name ſome of the moſt eminent German authors, and proficients in the fine arts. In divinity: Luther, Melanchthon, Buddeus, Bengel, Baumgarten, Spener, Arndt, Frank, Freylingſhauſen, Moſheim, Rambach, Jeruſalem, Cramer, Walch, Miller, Leſs, Erneſti, Cruſius, Zachariae, Herder, Roſenmuller, Grieſbach, Noſſett, Seiler, and Spangenberg. In Oriental literature: Michaelis, Frorcep, Hirt, Dathe, Tychſen, and Eichorn. In eccleſiaſtical hiſtory: Moſheim, Walch, Schroekh, Semler, and Spittler. In hiſtory and geography: Gatterer, Schroekh, Schloezer, Schmidt, Sprengel, Crantz, Buſching, Fabri, Raff, and Ebeling*. In canon, Roman, and civil law: Heineccius, Gundling, Puffendorf, Thomaſius, Putter, Boehmer, and Achenwall. In medicine: Stahl, Hoffman, Boerhaave, Van Swieten, Untzer, Zuckert, Zimmermann. In chemiſtry: Pott, and Margraaf. In philoſophy: Wolfe, Leibnitz, Feder, Sultzer, Mendelſohm, Kant, Zimmermann, Ebert, Eberhard, and Lambert. In natural hiſtory and botany; Rivinus, Dillenius, Beckman, Blumenbach, Forſter, Leſke, and Schreber. In mathematics: Wolfe, Kaeſtner, and Karſten. In aſtronomy: Kepler, Euler, Meyer, Bode, and Herſchell. In Latin and Greek claſſical literature: Reuchlin, Hederich,

* This gentleman is now engaged in the publication of an American geography, which, from the ſpecimen we have ſeen, promiſes to be a grand acquiſition to the ſtock of geograpical knowledge.

Erneſti, Heyne, Reitz, Gedike, and Scheller. In German grammar: Gottſched, Heynatz, and Adelung. In poetry: Gellert, Gleim, Jacobe, Kleiſt, Leſſing, Ramler, Utz, Wieland, Cronegh, Gothe, Schlegel, Stalberg, Hagedorn, Burger, and Zachariae. In Muſic: Bach, Benda, Graun, Handel, Haſſe, Hayden, Hiller, Reichardt, Rolle, Wolfe, and Naumann. In painting: Durer, Calker, Rubens, Angelica Kauffman, Cranach, Mengs, Dietrich, Sandrat and Graff. In engraving: Chodowiecki, Geyſer, Bauſe, Berger, Miller, and Oeſer. In architecture: Goldman, Sturm, and Penther. In education, and books for the uſe of children: Hubner, Reccard, Seiler, Layritz, Campe, Reſewitz, Rochow, Saltzmann, Weiſſe, Splittegarb, Lorentz, Schwartz. In various ſciences: Rabener, Winkelmann, Eſchenburge, Klugel, Leſſing, &c.

UNIVERSITIES, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES. There are thirty-nine univerſities in Germany, viz. eighteen Roman Catholic, ſixteen Lutheran, three Calviniſt, and two mixed. The ſubſequent table ſhows the cities and countries in which they are, and the year when each was founded. Erfurt has Lutheran and catholic, and Heidelberg, Calviniſt and Catholic profeſſors; on which account theſe univerſities are called mixed.

Catholic univerſities. City. Country.	When founded. A. D
Prague, Bohemia	1347
Vienna, Auſtria	1365
Cologne, Weſtphalia	1388
Louvain, Auſtrian Netherlands	1426
Freyburg, Swabia	1450
Ingoldſtadt, Bavaria	1472
Treves, Lower Rhine	1473
Mentz, Lower Rhine	1477
Olmutz, Moravia	1567
Breſlau, Sileſia	
Wurtſburgh, Franconia	1582
Gratz, Auſtria	1586
Dillingen, Swabia	
Saltſburg, Bavaria	1620
Bamberg, Franconia	1648
Inſpruck, Auſtria	1672
Fulda, Upper Rhine	1734
Bonn, Lower Rhine	1786

Lutheran univerſities. City. Country.	When founded. A. D.
Leipſic, Upper Saxony	1409
Roſtock, Lower Saxony	1419
Tubingen, Swabia	1477
Wittenberg, Upper Saxony	1502
Griefswalde, Upper Saxony	1539
Jena, Upper Saxony	1548
Helmſtadt, Lower Saxony	1576
Gieſſen, Upper Rhine	1607
Rinteln, Weſtphalia	1621
Altorf, Franconia	1623
Kiel, Lower Savony	1665
Halle, Lower Saxony	1694
Gottingen, Lower Saxony	1734
Erlangen, Franconia	1743
Butzow, Lower Saxony	1760
Stutgard, Swabia	1782

Calviniſt univerſities. City. Country.	When founded. A. D.
Frankfort on the Oder, Upper Saxony.	1506
Marpurg, Upper Rhine	1527
Duiſburg, Weſtphalia	1527
Duiſburg, Weſtphalia	1655

Mixed univerſities. City. Country.	When founded. A. D.
Heidelberg, Lower Rhine	1386
Erfurt, Upper Saxony	1398

Of the proteſtant univerſities, the moſt famous at preſent are thoſe of Gottingen, Leipſic, Halle, Wittenberg, Jena, Erlangen, and Frankfort on the Oder, of which the univerſity of Gottingen holds the firſt rank. It was founded by George II. king of Britain, and elector of Hanover. It roſe, under the care of its firſt curator, baron Munchauſen, to an uncommon degree of eminence, and was reſorted to, not only by ſtudents from all parts of Germany, but from many other proteſtant countries of Europe. The principal building is a large and elegant ſtone edifice, containing in the lower ſtory apartments for public lectures, and above, a ſpacious and magnificent hall for the library, which contains a collection of books hardly exceeded in number and value by any other

in Germany or in Europe. It is called the Bulau library, in honour of baron Bulau, whoſe gift of his own library of near 9000 volumes, was confirmed by a donation-act of his heirs. The library increaſes conſiderably every year. Another public building, belonging to the univerſity, is the elegant church, called St. Paul's. There are profeſſorſhips of divinity, oriental languages, juriſprudence, medicine, ſurgery, natural and moral philoſophy, natural hiſtory, botany, economy, rhetoric, the fine arts and ſciences, hiſtory, and geography. With the univerſity are united, a royal ſociety of ſciences, founded in 1751, and a royal German ſociety. There alſo belong to it, an obſervatory, with a fine aſtronomical apparatus, a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an inſtitution for practical inſtruction in midwifery, a philological ſeminary under the care of the profeſſor of oratory, and riding, fencing, and dancing ſchools.

Three or four years are the uſual period for an academical or ſcientific courſe in the German univerſities. The ſtudents at their entrance are ſeldom under eighteen or nineteen years of age, and muſt previouſly have received a claſſical education in the inferior ſchools, called Gymnaſiums, Lyceums, Collegiums, Pedagogiums, &c. wherein, beſides the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, they are taught hiſtory and geography, mathematics, the firſt rudiments of natural and moral philoſophy, and ſeveral of the modern languages. There is hardly a nation ſo much inclined to learn the languages of other countries, as the Germans. Beſides French and Engliſh, (of which the latter has become of late very faſhionable, and is held in high eſteem, eſpecially among the learned and higher claſſes) the Italian, Spaniſh, and Swediſh languages are taught in ſeveral univerſities and ſchools.

At Vienna and Berlin are academies of painting, ſculpture, and architecture; at Gottingen and Berlin, academies of ſciences; at Dreſden and Nuremberg, academies of painting; at Munchen, an academy of the liberal and fine ſciences, (belles lettres) and at Augſburgh an academy of the liberal arts.

The preſent king of Pruſſia eſtabliſhed at Berlin, in 1790, an academy of the arts and mechanical ſciences. Under the direction of this academy, ſchools are to be eſtabliſhed in all the chief manufacturing towns in his dominions, wherein journeymen or apprentices, who work at trades and manufactures, in which drawing and ſome knowledge of geometry and architecture are neceſſary, are to be inſtructed therein. The firſt ſchool of this kind was opened at Breſlau, in Sileſia, in 1792.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Though their manufactures in general are not in ſuch a ſtate of perfection, nor are carried to the ſame extent, as in England and France, they are, upon the whole, in a good and flouriſhing condition; and German wares are much eſteemed abroad on account of their durableneſs. Nuremberg, Augſburg, Berlin, Dreſden, Leipſic, Meiſſen, Gorlitz, Brunſwic, Hirſhberg, Buntzlau, Sohlingen, and other cities and towns, have manufactures not inferior to thoſe of the ſame kinds made in England or France, and ſome are ſuperior. The Nuremberg wares and toys, the Weſtphalia, Luſatia, and Sileſia linens and cloths, the Brunſwic paſteboard and lackwares, the Meiſſen and Berlin porcelain, of which the former is accounted ſuperior to any porcelain in the whole world, the Sohlingen ſteel-wares and blades, and, in general, the German cutlery, ſilk-ſtuffs, chintzes, cotton and twiſt ſtockings, beſides organs, piano-fortes, and other muſical inſtruments, are all well known and in high repute.

Germany, being in the centre of Europe, with a great number of navigable rivers and ſome canals, and bordering to the north on the German and Baltic ſeas, and to the ſouth, on the Venetian gulf, has an advantageous ſituation for commerce. The inland trade is very conſiderable, as is alſo the foreign commerce with almoſt all the European countries, carried on both by land and ſea. Hamburg, Bre-

men, and other ſea ports, on the north and Baltic ſeas, have alſo ſome direct commercial intercourſe with the United States of America; and ſome merchants of Trieſte and Oſtend trade to the Eaſt-Indies.

Germany exports to other countries, corn, wine, (chiefly Rheniſh) various fruits, freſh and preſerved, hops, ſaffron, tobacco, madder, ſmoked beef, hams, butter, cheeſe, honey, bees-wax, timber, both for ſhip building and houſes, pot-aſh, ſalt quickſilver, vitriol, ſulphur, millſtones, mineral waters, great quantities of linen and woollen yarn and ſtuffs, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, ribands, turner's wares in wood, metal, and ivory, commonly called Nuremburg wares, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, iron and ſteel-work, (of which the German ſcythes are particularly known and valued in Pennſylvania) copper, braſs-wire, porcelain, earthen ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hog's briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalt, Pruſſian and Saxon blue, printer's ink, beſides many other articles.

The imports, are, from France, Spain, Portugal, Hungary, and Italy, chiefly wine, oil, and raiſins; from England, Holland, and Denmark, tea, coffee, ſugar, and other Eaſt and Weſt India goods; and beſides, from England, great quantities of broad and narrow cloth, and hard earthen ware; from Poland and Ruſſia, bees-wax, honey, grain, oxen, &c.; from Turkey, Turkiſh yarn; from the United States, tobacco, rice, indigo, &c.

Hamburg, Bremen, Embden, and Oſtend on the north ſea, Lubec, Wiſmar, Stralſund, Stettin on the Baltic, and Trieſte and Fiume on the gulf of Venice, are the principal commercial ſea-port towns. Of the inland trading places, the moſt remarkable are, Frankfort on the Maine, Leipſic, Brunſwic, Frankfort on the Oder, Naumburg, and Mentz. Theſe ſix cities have the privilege, granted by the emperor, of keeping yearly great fairs, which, in particular thoſe at Leipſic, are frequented by merchants and traders from almoſt all the European countries. Lunenburg, Augſburg, Nuremburg, Prague, and Breſlaw, likwiſe carry on a briſk trade. In the middle of the thirteenth century, Hamburg and Lubec entered into a league or Hanſe, for promoting and mutually protecting their commerce. Bremen, Brunſwic, Wiſmar, Roſtoc, Sralſund, Griefswald, Colberg, Stettin, Lunenburg, Stade, Magdeburg, Halle, Goſlar, and many other towns of Germany and the adjacent countries, afterwards entered into their alliance; and this great commercial confederacy, known by the name of the Hanſeatic league, was, for more than a century, very powerful and formidable. Towards the cloſe of the fifteenth century, it was annihilated. Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, however, renewed the league in 1630. Theſe three cities are called, ſince that time, excluſively, the Hanſe towns, and, under this name, make commercial treaties with foreign powers.

The late king of Pruſſia, Frederic II. eſtabliſhed at Embden, the capital of Eaſt Frieſland, an Aſiatic company, for the encouragement of the trade to the Eaſt-Indies; but, ſince the year 1760, no ſhips have been ſent out; ſo that, excluſive of the commercial connections of the three Hanſe towns, no public trading company exiſts at preſent in Germany.

REVENUES AND MILITARY STRENGTH.] The revenues of the German empire accrue from the taxes of the empire laid or aſſeſſed by the emperor, with the conſent of the diet. Theſe revenues are either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary revenues, called chamber inſtalments, are the contributions of all the ſtates of the empire, made in half-yearly inſtalments or payments, for the ſupport of the imperial chamber court at Wetzlar. In 1720, it was decreed, that to this end the yearly ſum of 103,600 rix dollars, (77,700 Spaniſh dollars) ſhould be raiſed, to which each elector ſhould contribute 811 rix dollars, (608 Spaniſh dollars) and the other princes and ſtates in proportion. When, in the year 1775, the number of chamber judges was augmented, the chamber inſtalments were raiſed one-fourth part. Extraordinary taxes or revenues are raiſed in caſe of a general war of the

empire. The payments are made in Roman months, which denomination derives its origin from thoſe times, when the emperors, in the beginning of their reign, made a journey to Rome, in order to be crowned by the Roman pontiff. On ſuch occaſions, the ſtates of the empire were obliged to accompany the emperor with a certain number of horſe and footmen, during ſix months at their own expence, or to pay monthly for each horſeman twelve florins, and for each footman four florins. One Roman month is about 50,000 florins (25,000 Spaniſh dollars.) The ſtates pay theſe ſums, not out of their ordinary revenues, but by extraordinary taxes upon their ſubjects. When the German empire is at war with any foreign power, the ſtates of the empire are obliged not only to ſend their quotas or contingents of troops, but they muſt alſo pay into the war treaſury certain ſums, which are aſſeſſed, partly by the diet, and partly by the circle to which they belong. If a prince or ſtate keeps no ſoldiers, the circle raiſes and ſupports his contingent of troops, and charges him with ſo many more Roman months. The army of the empire amounted, according to a decree made in 1681, to 40,000 men. This number is called a ſingle contingent. In 1702, it was doubled, and, in 1734, trebled. At preſent, it conſiſts, in time of peace, of 80,000, and in time of war, of 120,000 men. The contingents of each circle for the ſingle number of 40,000, were apportioned, in 1734, according to the following table; wherein alſo appear the ſums to be paid by each, as fixed in 1708, in order to raiſe the ſum of 1,000,000 rix dollars, or 1,500,000 florins.

Circles.	Horſemen.	Footmen.	Florins.	Kreutzers.
Lower Rhine	600	2707	10,564	25
Upper Saxony	1322	2707	156,360	15
Auſtria	2522	5507	306,390	20
Burgundy	1321	2708	156,360	15
Franconia	980	1902	113,481	25
Bavaria	800	1494	91,261	5
Swabia	1321	2707	156,360	15
Upper Rhine	491	2853	101,411	30
Weſtphalia	1321	2708	156,360	15
Lower Saxony	1322	2707	156,360	15
	12,000	28,000	1,500,000	
		12,000		
		40,000		

The revenues of the emperor from his hereditary dominions, of the king of Pruſſia from the whole Pruſſian monarchy, and of the other moſt conſiderable German princes, with the military ſtrength of each, were ſtated in a ſtatiſtical view of Germany, publiſhed in the German language, in 1786, as follows;

[NOTE. The rix dollars, florins, and marks, are reduced in a ſeparate column to Spaniſh dollars, at the rate of four rix dollars to three Spaniſh, and two florins or three marks banco of Hamburg, to one Spaniſh dollar.]

States.	Revenues.		Military ſtrength.
Auſtria	90,000,000 flor.	45,000,000 Sp. dol.	300,000
Pruſſia	22,000,000 r. d.	16,000,000	224,000
Electorate of Saxony	6,800,000 r. d.	5,100,000	26,000

States.	Revenues	Military ſtrength.
Electorate of the Palat. of Bavaria	10,000,000 flor.	5,000,000 Sp. dol. 24,000
Hanover	5,000,000 r. d.	4,125,000 26,000
Mentz	1,500,000 flor.	750,000 10,000
Treves	780,000 flor.	390,000 7,000
Cologne, not including Munſter	1,000,000 flor.	500,000 6,000
Duchy of Wurtemburg	2,000,000 flor.	1,000,000 6,000
Heſſe Caſſel	1,600,000 r. d.	1,200,000 12,000
Heſſe Darmſtadt	1,150,000 flor.	575,000 4,000
Duchy of Brunſwic	1,500,000 r. d.	1,125,000 5,500
Margraviate of Baden	1,200,000 flor.	600,000 3,000
Saxe Weimar	600,000 flor.	300,000
Saxe Gotha	800,000 flor.	400,000 1,700
Saxe Coburg	86,000 r. d.	64,500
Saxe Hildburghauſen	80,000 r. d.	60,000
Deuxponts	800,000 flor.	400,000
Mecklenburg Schwerin	700,000 r. d.	525,000
Mecklenburg Strelitz	350,000 r. d.	242,500
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburg	1,500,000 flor.	750,000
Biſhopric of Munſter	1,200,000 flor.	600,000
Liege	1,200,000 flor.	600,000
Bamberg	700,000 flor.	350,000
Wurtzburg	800,000 flor.	400,000
Paderborn	600,000 flor.	300,000
Paſſau	200 000 flor.	100,000
Spire	300 000 flor.	150,000
Fulda	300,000 flor.	150,000
Hildeſheim	259,400 r. d.	194,550
Oſnaburg	180,000 flor.	90,000
City of Hamburg	3,000,000 marks	1,000,000
Nuremburg	2,000,000 flor.	1,000,000

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, we anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court in Germany poſſeſſes a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelburg, holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that are to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, townhouſes, in Germany, are very curious; they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages, have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and

their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg, in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, ſtands a monument, which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were ſwallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions, of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES AND ARMS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been generally admitted to a precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is inveſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult, to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend, that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the golden fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Thereſa.

DOMINIONS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA IN GERMANY.

I. The whole circle of Auſtria.
II. In the circle of Swabia,
  1. Fore Auſtria, or the Auſtrian Briſgau.
  2. Swabian Auſtria.
III. In the circle of Lower Rhine,
  The county of Falkenſtein.
IV. The circle of Burgundy or Auſtrian Netherlands.
V. A part of Upper Sileſia.
VI. The marquiſate of Moravia.
VII. The kingdom of Bohemia*.

The extent is about 93,100 ſquare miles†, and the population ten millions and a half. The whole Auſtrian monarchy comprehends about 253,000 ſquare miles‡, and twenty millions of inhabitants.

By the pragmatic ſaction, proviſion was made, by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions, in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by the other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſi-

* The other dominions of the houſe of Auſtria are the kingdom of Hungary; Tranſylvania; Croatia; part of Sclavonia and Dalmatia; the Buckowine; the kingdom of Galicia, and the duchies of Tuſcany, Milan and Mantua, in Italy.

† 4,400 German miles. [NOTE. The number of ſquare miles and inhabitants in the Auſtrian and other German dominions, are taken from "*Statiſtiche Ueberſicht von Deutſchland nach ſeinen kreiſen und Hauptlændern*," publiſhed at Berlin in 1792, by the editors of the new atlas of Germany.]

‡ 11,000 German ſquare miles.

onally ſupported by France from political views though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guaranteed by almoſt all the powers of Europe.

The principal cities, in that part of Auſtrian monarchy, which belongs to Germany, are,

1. Vienna, the capital of the circle of Auſtria; which, being the reſidence of the emperor, is accounted the capital of all Germany. Though not very large, it is a noble and ſtrong city; and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have neglected nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an univerſity, a bank, which is under the management of its own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the Aulic council The ſuburbs are larger and more beautiful than the city itſelf. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of the capital, two of which are imperial, its ſquares, academies, and libraries, and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinet of curioſities. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about 200,000, of whom, as we have already obſerved, many are foreigners, who migrate hither on account of the encouragement held out to them by the imperial court. Notwithſtanding this conſtant influx of ſtrangers, through the good regulation and vigilance of the police, the ſtreets, which, in the city itſelf, are narrow, are at all times ſafe and peaceable.

2. Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is another fine and magnificent city. It is divided into two parts by the river Molda, which is here 700 feet wide, and navigable for ſmall veſſels. Over the river is a noble and ſpacious ſtone bridge, ſupported by eighteen piers, and famous for the twenty-nine ſtatues of ſaints with which it is adorned. The bridge was built in 1357, by the emperor Charles IV. The circumference of the city is large; and, though fortified, it has often been taken. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and about 80,000 inhabitants, including the Jews, who are very numerous.

Of the dominions of the elector of Brandenburg, king of Pruſſia, we ſhall give an account under a ſeparate head.

Dominions of the elector palatine of Bavaria.

I. In the circle of Bavaria.
1. The duchy of Bavaria.
2. The Upper Palatinate.
3. The principalities of Neuberg and Sultzbach.
4. The counties of Leuchtenberg and Haag.
5. The lordſhips of Ehrenfels, Sultzburg and Pyrbaum, Hohenwaldeck and Breitenek.

II. In the circle of Franconia.
The county of Erbach, of which the greateſt part is under the ſovereignty of Bavaria.

III. In the circle of Swabia.
The lordſhips of Wieſenſteig, Mindelheim, and Schwabeck.

IV. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
The Palatinate on the Rhine, or the Lower Palatinate.

V. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
1. The principalities of Simmen, Lautern, and Veldentz.
2. Part of the county of Sponheim.

VI. In the circle of Weſtphalia.
The duchies of Juliers and Bergen.

Note. The countries mentioned under I, II, and III, were formerly the electorate of Bavaria; and thoſe under IV, V, VI, the electoral Palatinate.

All theſe ſtates comprehend about 20,955 ſquare miles. The number of inhabitants is nearly two millions.

There exiſted in the ſixth century, dukes of Bavaria. In the eleventh century, Ba-

* 990 German ſquare miles.

varia became an hereditary dukedom. In 1623, the dukes of Bavaria obtained the fifth electoral dignity and the Upper Palatinate. After the death of the laſt elector and duke of Bavaria, in the year 1778, the elector of the Palatinate obtained poſſeſſion of the electorate of Bavaria, and both conjointly are ſince called the Electoral Palatinate of Bavaria. Few parts of Germany are leſs populous, or worſe cultivated and improved, than Bavaria. The king of Pruſſia in his poſthumous hiſtory, terms this country a terreſtrial paradiſe inhabited by beaſts.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

1. Munich, the capital of Bavaria, is ſituated on the river Iſer. For its ſtraight and ſpacious ſtreets, and grand buildings, both for religious, civil, and literary purpoſes, it is juſtly ranked among the fineſt cities in Germany. The ducal palace or caſtle is a moſt noble building, and the churches are numerous and rich. This city contains 50,000 inhabitants.

2. Manheim, the preſent reſidence of the elector Palatine of Bavaria, and a ſtrong fortreſs, lies on an extenſive plain at the junction of the rivers Neckar and Rhine. Compared with other cities of Germany, Manheim is a place that has but lately riſen into conſequence. In the year 1606, it conſiſted merely of an old caſtle and village, when the elector Frederic IV. began to build the preſent town, and to people it with refugees from the Netherlands, who fled there to enjoy liberty of conſcience. It is now one of the grandeſt and beſt fortified cities in Germany. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and croſs each other at right angles, as in Philadelphia. Through the munificence and partiality of the electors to this place, nothing has been neglected that could contribute to its riches and ſplendor. It contains 20,000 inhabitants.

Dominions of the elector of Saxony.

I. In the circle of Upper Saxony.

1. Electoral Saxony, containing the duchy of Saxony, the greateſt part of the margraviate of Meiſſen, a part of Thuringia and the Voigtland, the principality of Querfurt, and the county of Barby, which ſtates are divided into ſeven circles.
2. The biſhoprics of Merſeburg and Naumburg.
3. Part of the county of Mansfeldt.

II. In the circle of Franconia.

Part of the county of Henneberg.

III Luſatia.

1. The margraviate of Upper Luſatia.
2. The greateſt part of the margraviate of Lower Luſatia.

Note. The elector of Saxony has alſo the ſovereignty over a part of the county of Stolberg, in Upper Saxony; and the counts of Schoenburg, in Upper Saxony, hold their lands as fiefs of him.

The electorate of Saxony, including Luſatia, is one of the fineſt and moſt fertile countries in Europe, abounding in grain, fruits, wine, ſalt, ſilver, tin, and other metals, and precious ſtones. It contains 15,578 ſquare miles*, and about two millions of people.

The electors of Saxony are deſcendants of the old margraves of Meiſſen, whoſe origin was in the fifth century. In the fourteenth century, the latter became dukes and electors of Saxony. The elector Frederic the mild, who lived in the beginning of the fifteenth century, had two ſons, Erneſt and Albert, the founders of the two lines in the houſe of Saxony. From the younger, or Albertinian line, deſcends the preſent electoral houſe; and the dukes of Saxe Weimar, Gotha, Coburg, &c. are of the elder or Erneſtinian line.

* 736 German ſquare miles.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

1. Dreſden, the capital, is ſituated on both ſides of the river Elbe, over which is a ſtone bridge, 630 paces in length, and ſupported by nineteen piers. It is ſurrounded by ſtrong and handſome fortifications, and contains, according to the beſt accounts, 50,000 inhabitants. All the buildings are conſtructed with ſquare free-ſtone, and are almoſt all of the ſame height. The ſtreets are wide, ſtraight, well paved, clean, and well illuminated in the night; and the ſquares, churches, and other public buildings, are ſo elegant, and diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, that the capital of Saxony may very properly be called one of the handſomeſt and moſt magnificent cities in the world. The elector's palace is a ſuperb ſtructure, and abounds in many curioſities, both of nature and art. The collection of pictures is one of the fineſt that exiſts, and is valued at 500,000l. ſterling. Not far from Dreſden is the electoral palace, where the late well-known treaty of alliance was concluded between the emperor, the king of Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, with a view to counteract, as much as poſſible, the principles of the French revolution.

2. Leipſic is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Plieſſe. Its inhabitants are 30,000. The ſuburbs are large and well built, with handſome gardens. Between theſe and the town is a fine walk of lime trees, which encompaſſes the city. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with more than 700 lamps. They reckon here 436 mercantile houſes, and 192 manufactures of different articles. Many of the houſes of the rich merchants reſemble the palaces of princes.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF HANOVER, KING OF BRITAIN.

I. In the circle of Lower Saxony.
1. The principality of Calenberg.
2. The principality of Grubenhagen.
3. The principality of Lunenburg.
4. The duchy of Bremen.
5. The duchy of Saxe Lauenburg.
6. The land of Hadeln.

II. In the circle of Weſtphalia.
1. The principality of Verden.
2. The counties of Hoya, Diepholtz, and Bentheim.

III. In the circle of Upper Saxony.
The county of Hohenſtein.

Theſe ſtates contain about 10,879 ſquare miles*, and between eight and nine hundred thouſand inhabitants.

The electors of Brunſwic Lunenburg, commonly called the electors of Hanover, and the dukes of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, are deſcendants of the powerful dukes, who, in the twelfth century, poſſeſſed the duchies of Saxony and Bavaria, beſides great territories in Swabia and Italy. Towards the cloſe of the twelfth century, duke Henry the lion loſt the greater part of theſe dominions. The duchy of Brunſwic had its origin ſoon after. In the ſeventeenth century, it was divided into two lines, the elder of which is Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, and the younger Brunſwic Lunenburg or Hanover. The latter was honoured in 1692, with the ninth electoral dignity, and, in 1714, with the crown of Britain.

Hanover, the capital, ſtands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city, and pretty well fortified. The electoral palace makes no great ſhow outwardly, but within it is richly furniſhed. In the neighbourhood of the city are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The inhabitants are 15,000.

* 514 German ſquare miles.

Dominions of the elector of Mentz.

I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
The archbiſhopric of Mentz.
II. In the circle of Upper Saxony.
1. The city of Erfurt, with its territory in Thuringia.
2. The Aichsfeld.
III. In the circle of Franconia.
The county of Rieneck.
IV. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
Part of the county of Kœnigſtein.

The archbiſhopric of Mentz was founded in 750. The preſent elector is alſo biſhop of Worms. All his dominions, Worms included, contain 2963 ſquare miles*, and between three and four hundred thouſand inhabitants.

Mentz, or Mayence†, the capital, lies on the river Rhine, not far from the place where it is joined by the river Maine. From its ſituation and ſtrength, it is conſidered as one of the moſt important barriers of the empire againſt France. The modern plan of improvement in the fortifications was not completed, when general Cuſtine made himſelf maſter of the place. Here are many magnificent churches venerable for their antiquity. The town is populous, but, like moſt of the ancient cities of Europe, the major part of the houſes are inelegant, and the ſtreets narrow. Near the city, the elector has a palace called Martinſburg. The inhabitants are computed at 27,000.

Dominions of the elector of Treves.

I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
1. The archbiſhopric of Treves.
2. The greateſt part of the county of Lower Yfenburg.
II. In the circle of Upper Rhine.
1. The abbey of Prum.
2. Two-thirds of Muntzfelden.

Treves is one of the oldeſt archbiſhoprics in Germany; the time of its erection is uncertain. The preſent elector is likewiſe biſhop of Augſburg and provoſt of Ellwangen. All the ſtates ſubject to Treves, Augſburg and Ellwangen included, contain 2520 ſquare miles§, and between two and three hundred thouſand inhabitants. Treves is an old city, well known in hiſtory, and the uſual reſidence of the elector. Coblentz is a handſome and ſtrong town, at the confluence of the Moſelle and Rhine, containing 12,000 inhabitants. Here was formerly a Roman fort, and afterwards the reſidence of the kings of the Franks. The ſituation is delightful, in a fertile country, with mountains covered with vineyards. Over the Moſelle is a ſtone bridge of twelve arches. A ferry machine, of a peculiar conſtruction, is conſtantly paſſing from the city to the other ſide of the Rhine, where there is a very ſtrong caſtle, which appears to be almoſt inacceſſible to an enemy, and entirely commands the city.

Dominions of the elector of Cologne.

I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
1. The archbiſhopric of Cologne.
2. The duchy of Weſtphalen.
3. The county of Recklinghauſen.
II. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
The lordſhips of Brezenheim and Jachtuhl. Of the latter he is only liegelord.

This archbiſhopric was founded in 743. The preſent elector of Cologne is alſo biſhop of Munſter, and high maſter of the Teutonic order. All his ſtates, including the biſhopric of Munſter in Weſtphalia (the territory of which is about 4200 ſquare

* 140 German ſquare miles. † It was here that printing was firſt invented by John Fauſt, in 1441.
§ 120 German ſquare miles.

miles) and the maſterdom of Mergentheim in Franconia, contain 7027 ſquare miles (332 German), and between five and 600,000 inhabitants.

Bonn, the reſidence of the elector, is ſituated on the Rhine, and though not large, has many good houſes.

Dominions of the landgraves of Hesse.

Heſſe Caſſel.

I. In the circle of Upper Rhine.

1. Lower Heſſe.
2. Part of Upper Heſſe.
3. Principality of Hersfeld.
4. County of Hanau Muntzenberg.
5. County of Lower Katzenellenbogen.

II. In the circle of Franconia.

Part of the county of Henneberg.

III. In the circle of Weſtphalia.

The greateſt part of the county of Shauenburg.

Heſſe Darmſtadt.

I. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.

1. Part of Upper Heſſe.
2. County of Upper Katzenellenbogen.
3. County of Hanau Lichtenberg.

Note. The greateſt part of the latter is ſituated in Alſace.

The houſe of Heſſe has been in poſſeſſion of this landgraviate ſince the thirteenth century. In the ſeventeenth, two lines aroſe in the family, Heſſe Caſſel, and Heſſe Darmſtadt. Heſſe Rheinfels and Heſſe Philipſthal, are collateral branches of the former, and Heſſe Hamburg of the latter. All are called landgraves of Heſſe. The territories of Heſſe Caſſel contain 3302 ſquare miles (156 Germ), and thoſe of Heſſe Darmſtadt 2159 (102 Germ.), in all 5461 ſquare miles. The population of the former is between four and 500,000, and of the latter from two to 300,000.

Caſſel on the Fulda, is the reſidence of the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. It is divided into the old, new, and high towns. The new town is beſt built. The whole is ſtrongly fortified, but the works are irregular. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom a great proportion are French proteſtants. The landgraves have ſpared no pains nor expenſe to enrich this city with the moſt curious and valuable works of art. Darmſtadt is the principal place in the landgraviate of the ſame name.

Dominions of the duke of Wurtemberg.

I. In the circle of Swabia.

1. The duchy of Wurtemberg.
2. The lordſhips of Weilſheim and Juſtingen.

II. In the circle of Franconia.

Part of the lordſhip of Limburg.

III. The county of Mumpelgard.

There were courts of Wurtemberg as early as the twelfth century. In 1495, they obtained the title of duke. Their territories contain about 3281 ſquare miles, (155 Germ.), and 600,000 inhabitants.

Stutgard, the capital of Wurtemberg, is pleaſantly ſituated on a fruitful plain near the river Neckar. The city is not large, but its two ſuburbs are conſiderable and well-built, containing 20,000 perſons. This is a very old place, and can boaſt of ſeveral public buildings and inſtitutions, which do credit to the taſte and genius of the dukes who have governed it.

Dominions of the margrave of Baden.

I. In the circle of Swabia.

1. The margraviate of Baden.
2. The county of Eberſtein.

II. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.

Part of the county of Sponheim.

The margraves of Baden had their origin in the eleventh century, and deſcend from the dukes of Zahringen. From the year 1503, till 1772, there were two reigning lines, viz. Baden Baden, and Baden Durlach. Since the death of the laſt mar-

grave of Baden Baden in 1772, the houſe of Baden Durlach has been in poſſeſſion of the whole margraviate, and all the lands belonging to it. Theſe ſtates contain about 1376 ſquare miles (65 German), and two hundred thouſand inhabitants. Durlach is the capital, and Carlſruhe the reſidence of the margrave.

Dominions of the dukes of Brunswic Wolfenbuttel.

I. In the circle of Lower Saxony.
1. The principality of Wolfenbuttel.
2. The principality of Blankenburg.

II. In the circle of Upper Saxony.
The lordſhip of Walkenried.

III. In the circle of Weſtphalia.
The bailiwic of Thedinghauſen.

Theſe ſtates contain 1990 ſquare miles (94 German), and 185,000 inhabitants. Brunſwic is the chief city. It is of a ſquare form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker, which has been made navigable to this place. It is about two miles in circumference, and ſtrongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar-piece of braſs, ten feet ſix inches long, and nine feet two inches in circumference, weighing one thouſand eight hundred quintals, and having ninety-three quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of ſeven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the diſtance of thirty-three thouſand paces, and throw a bomb of a thouſand weight; but it requires fifty-two pounds of powder for a charge. The military academy here, is reſorted to from many parts of Germany, &c. The number of perſons in this city is about twenty-two thouſand.

Dominions of the dukes of Saxony.

The dukes of Saxony, of the elder or Erneſtinian line, are divided into two principal lines, Saxe Weimar and Saxe Gotha. Of the latter, Saxe Hildburghauſen and Saxe Meinungen are collateral branches. Their dominions are,

In the circle of Upper Saxony, the principalities of Weimar, Eiſenach, and Gotha, which are a part of the landgraviate of Thuringia, and the principality of Altenburg, which is a part of the margraviate of Meiſſen; in the circle of Franconia, the principality of Coburg, and a part of the county of Henneberg. The ſilver mines, the univerſity and the Aulic court at Jena, are held in joint poſſeſſion by the five dukes. The dominions of each are as follow:

I. Saxe Weimar.
1. The principality of Weimar.
2. The principality of Eiſenach.
3. Part of the county of Henneberg.

II. Saxe Gotha.
1. The principality of Gotha.
2. The greateſt part of the principality of Altenburg.

III. Saxe Coburg Saalfeld.
1. Part of the principality of Coburg.
2. Part of the principality of Altenburg.

IV. Saxe Hildburghauſen.
1. Part of the principality of Coburg.
2. Part of the county of Henneberg.

V. Saxe Meinungen.
1. The greateſt part of the principality of Coburg.
2. Part of the county of Henneberg.

The number of ſquare miles, and the population of each, as ſtated in Randel's Statiſtical view, in 1792, are as follow,

Dominions of	Square miles. German	Engliſh.	Population.	Capitals and reſidences.
Saxe Weimar	35	741	108,000	Weimar.
Saxe Gotha	53	1122	165,000	Gotha.
Saxe Coburg Saalfeld	17	360	58,000	Coburg.
Saxe Hildburghauſen	10	212	30,000	Hildburghauſen.
Saxe Meinungen	23	487	70,000	Meinungen.
	Total 138	2922	431,000	

Dominions of the king of Denmark, in Germany, ſee page 440.
Dominions of the king of Sweden, in Germany, ſee page 441.

Dominions of the dukes of Mecklenburg.

The dukes of Mecklenburg, whoſe poſſeſſions are the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the principalities of Schwerin and Ratzeburg, all ſituated in Lower Saxony, deſcend from the Vandalian prince Priviſlaw, who, towards the end of the twelfth century, embraced the chriſtian faith. In 1348, Mecklenburg was created a duchy, and afterwards divided into Mecklenburg Schwerin, and Mecklenburg Guſtrow. There are at preſent two branches of this family, namely, thoſe of Schwerin and Strelitz. Their poſſeſſions are as follow:

I. Mecklenburg Schwerin.
1. The duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin.
2. The greater part of the duchy of Mecklenburg Guſtrow.
3. The principality of Schwerin.

II. Mecklenburg Strelitz.
1. The leſſer part of the duchy of Mecklenburg Guſtrow.
2. The principality of Ratzeburg.

Mecklenburg Schwerin contains 5080 ſquare miles (300 German), and Mecklenburg Strelitz 1270 (60 Germ.); in all 6350 ſquare miles (300 German). The whole population amounts to 300,000 ſouls.

Schwerin and New Strelitz are the capitals, and reſidences of the dukes.

Dominions of the duke of Deuxponts.

The duke of Deuxponts is a near kinſman to the elector palatine of Bavaria, both being deſcendants of the old dukes of Bavaria, and counts palatine of the Rhine, out of which houſe Ruper III. was choſen emperor, in the eleventh century. He holds the firſt rank among the princes of the empire on the ſecular bench. His dominions are in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

1. The principality of Deuxponts.
2. Part of the county of Sponheim.

They contain about 635 ſquare miles (30 Germ.), and 60,000 inhabitants.

Deuxponts is the capital and reſidence of the duke.

Dominions of the duke of Oldenburg.

I. In the circle of Weſtphalia.
The duchy of Oldenburg.

II. In the circle of Lower Saxony.
The biſhopric of Lubec or Eutin.

The counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt were, after the year 1448, a part of the Daniſh dominions, as Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, was then created king of Denmark, by the name of Chriſtian I. From him the preſent regal houſe of Denmark is deſcended. In 1765, the two counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt, were ceded by Denmark to Ruſſia for a part of Holſtein, and, in 1773, they were made a duchy, and given, by the empreſs of Ruſſia, to the dukes of Holſtein Gottorp, of the younger line, who, ſince the year 1586, have been in poſſeſſion of the biſhopric of Lubec or Eutin.

The duchy of Oldenburg and biſhopric of Lubec contain, together, about 952 ſquare miles, (45 Germ.), and 90,000 inhabitants. The revenues amount to 350,000 florins (175,000 Spaniſh dollars).

Oldenburg and Lubec are the capitals, and the latter is the reſidence of the duke and biſhop.

Dominions of the princes of Anhalt.

Theſe princes deſcend from the old dukes of Saxony, who poſſeſſed the county of

Anhalt, which, in the fourteenth century, was made a principality. It is ſituated in the circle of Upper Saxony, and divided into four parts or principalities, named, after the four branches of the houſes of Anhalt,

I. Anhalt Deſſau.
II. Anhalt Zerbſt.*
III. Anhalt Koethen.
IV. Anhalt Bernburg.

They contain, together, about 1058 ſquare miles (50 German), and above one hundred thouſand inhabitants. The revenues are about 650,000 rix dollars, (487,500 Spaniſh dollars).

Deſſau, Zerbſt, Koethen, and Bernburg, are the capitals and reſidences of the four princes.

Dominions of the princes of Nassau.

The houſe of Naſſau is divided into two branches, and has exiſted ſince the twelfth century.

1. Naſſau Dietz Dillenburg.
2. Naſſau Saarbruck Uſingen.

The princes of Naſſau Dietz, or the houſe of Orange, hereditary ſtadtholders of Holland, have their dominions in the circle of Weſtphalia. They conſiſt of the four counties of Diets, Siegen, Dillenburg, and Hademar, and the county of Speigelburg; the latter is at preſent under the ſovereignty of the elector of Hanover. The lands of the princes of Naſſau Saarbruck Uſingen, are the four counties of Weilburg, Uſingen, Saarbruck, and Saarwerden, ſituated in the circle of the Upper Rhine. All the Naſſau dominions contain about 1587 ſquare miles (75 German), and 185,000 inhabitants. The revenues of the prince of Naſſau Dietz, are about 400,000 florins, (200,000 Spaniſh dollars); and of Naſſau Saarbruck Uſingen, about 150,000 florins, (75,000 Spaniſh dollars).

Dietz is the capital of Naſſau Dietz, and Weildburg, Uſingen, and Saarbruck, the reſidences of the three princes of the elder line of the houſe of Naſſau. The town of Wiſbaden, in Naſſau Uſingen, is famous for its warm baths.

Dominions of the princes of Schwartzburg.

The counts of Schwartzburg had their origin in the twelfth century. In 1697, they were created princes of the empire. At preſent they are divided into two lines.

1. Schwartzburg Sonderſhauſen.
2. Schwartzburg Rudelſtadt.

This principality, which is a part of Thuringia, in Upper Saxony, conſiſts of two parts. The northern or lower diviſion belongs to the prince of Sonderſhauſen, and the ſouthern, or upper diviſion, to the Prince of Rudelſtadt. The whole contains 846 ſquare miles (40 Germ.) and 100,000 inhabitants.

Sonderſhauſen and Rudelſtadt are the capitals and reſidences of the princes.

Dominions of the prince of Waldeck.

1. The county of Waldeck in the circle of the Upper Rhine.
2. The county of Pyrmont in the circle of Weſtphalia.

They contain 762 ſquare miles (36 German), and about 78,000 inhabitants.

Corbach is the capital, and Arolſen the reſidence of the prince. The town of Pyrmont is much reſorted to, on account of its waters and baths.

* Anhalt Zerbſt poſſeſſes alſo the lordſhip of Jever in Weſtphalia.

Dominions of the counts of Lippe.

There are two branches of this houſe,

1. Lippe Schauenburg.
2. Lippe Detmold.

Their dominions are parts of the counties of Schauenburg and Lippe, ſituated in the circle of Weſtphalia. They contain 741 ſquare miles (35 Germ.) and above 70,000 inhabitants. Their revenues amounting to 200,000 rix dollars.

Buckeburg and Detmold are the reſidences of the counts of Lippe.

Dominions of the princes and counts of Reuss.

The counts of Reuſs are divided into two principal lines, the elder and the younger. Thoſe of the elder or Graitz line, were, in 1778, created princes of the empire. In the younger line, are four reigning houſes, namely, at Gera, Schleitz, Lobenſtein, and Eberſdorf. Their dominions are a part of the Voigtland, in Upper Saxony, and contain 444 ſquare miles (21 Germ.) and about 75,000 inhabitants. All the princes and counts of Reuſs have the name Henry, and are diſtinguiſhed by the number affixed to each, as Henry V. prince Reuſs, or LIV. count Reuſs. The two families of princes and counts reckon their ſons ſeparately. In the latter, all the branches number their male children promiſcuouſly, according to the order of their birth. Each line counts from one to an hundred.

Graitz is the reſidence of the princes, and Gera, Schleitz, Lobenſtein, and Eberſdorf, are the reſidences of the counts Reuſs.

Some of the most considerable ecclesiastical states.

Archbishoprics and bishoprics.

1. The archbiſhopric of Saltſburg, in the circle of Bavaria, which exiſted as early as the eighth century. It contains 3810 ſquare miles (180 Germ.) and 200,000 inhabitants. The archbiſhop holds the firſt rank among the princes of the empire on the eccleſiaſtical bench.

Saltſburgh, the capital and reſidence of the archbiſhop, has 14,000 inhabitants. The town of Hallein has rich ſalt mines, yielding yearly about 750,000 cwt.

2. The biſhopric of Paſſau, in the circle of Bavaria, was founded in the eighth century. It has a territory of 318 ſquare miles (15 Germ.) and 25,000 inhabitants.

Paſſau, the capital and reſidence of the biſhop, is known in hiſtory on account of the peace made here, in 1552.

3. The biſhopric of Bamberg, in the circle of Franconia, was founded in the eighth century. It has a population of 180,000 perſons, on a territory of 1376 ſquare miles, (65 Germ.)

Bamberg is the capital and reſidence of the biſhop.

4. The biſhopric of Wurtſburg, in the circle of Franconia, was founded in the eleventh century. It contains 1905 ſquare miles (90 Germ.) and between two and 300,000 inhabitants.

5. The biſhopric of Spire, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was founded in the fourth century. Including the provoſtſhip of Weiſſenburg, it has a population of above 30,000 ſouls, on 254 ſquare miles (12 German.)

Bruchſal is the reſidence of the biſhop.

6. The biſhopric of Hildeſheim, in the circle of Lower Saxony, was founded in the ninth century. It contains 1058 ſquare miles (50 Germ.) and 100,000 inhabitants.

Hildeſheim is the capital, and reſidence of the biſhop.

7. The biſhopric of Paderborn, in the circle of Weſtphalia, was founded in the ninth century. It has a territory of 1164 ſquare miles (55 Germ.) and about 100,000 inhabitants.

Paderborn is the capital, and reſidence of the biſhop.

8. The biſhopric of Oſnabrig, in the circle of Weſtphalia, was founded in the ninth century. It contains 1185 ſquare miles (56 Germ.) and 120,000 inhabitants. At the peace of Weſtphalia, it was ſtipulated that the biſhops of Oſnabrig ſhould be alternately of the Roman catholic and Lutheran religion, and that the Lutheran biſhops ſhould always be elected out of the houſe of Brunſwic Lunenburg. The preſent biſhop is the duke of York, ſecond ſon to George III. king of England.

Oſnabrig is the capital. In the town-houſe of this city, the famous peace of Weſtphalia was concluded, in 1648.

9. The biſhopric of Liege (Luttich) in the circle of Weſtphalia, is ſaid to have been founded as early as the beginning of the ſecond century. It contains 2222 ſquare miles (105 Germ.) and 220,000 inhabitants.

Liege, the capital and reſidence of the biſhop, is a very large and well fortified city. It has 80,000 inhabitants. Great quantities of pit-coal are dug in its neighbourhood.

10. The biſhopric of Fulda, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was founded in the eighth century, and contains above 635 ſquare miles (30 German), and 80,000 inhabitants.

Fulda is the capital, and reſidence of the biſhop.

IMPERIAL CITIES.] The imperial cities may be conſidered as ſo many republics or ſtates, under the protection and ſovereignty of the emperor and empire. Their number is fifty-one, viz. one in Bavaria*, thirty-one in Swabia†, five in Franconia‡, five in Upper Rhine§, three in Weſtphalia‖, and ſix in Lower Saxony**. Some of them have a territory ſubject to their juriſdiction. That of Nuremberg is the largeſt, being 635 ſquare miles (30 Germ.) Ulm has a territory of 360 ſquare miles (17 Germ.); others, of from 10 to 120.

The moſt remarkable are:

1. Ratiſbon, or Regenſburg, a large and populous city on the Danube, over which is an old bridge built of free-ſtone. It was formerly the capital of Bavaria, and the reſidence of the elector. The grand diet of the empire has ſat here, with very little interruption, ever ſince the year 1663, which has rendered this place well known in the hiſtory of modern Europe. The number of inhabitants is 21,500.

2. Augſburg, one of the oldeſt and moſt remarkable cities in Germany, and the capital of the circle of Swabia, is ſeated near the confluence of two ſmall rivers,

* Ratiſbon, or Regenſburg.

† 1. Augſburg, 2. Ulm, 3. Eſſling, 4. Reutling, 5. Nordling, 6. Swabiſhall, 7. Heilbrun, 8. Menningen, 9. Lindau, 10. Kempten, 11. Iſny, 12. Leutkirch, 13. Gingen, 14. Buchhorn, 15. Aalen, 16. Bopfing, 17. Ueberling, 18. Rothweil, 19. Gemund, 20. Weil, 21. Wangen, 22. Pfullendorf, 23. Offenburg, 24. Zell, 25. Buchau, 26. Dinkelſpiehl, 27. Biberach, 28. Ravenſburg, 29. Kaufbeuren, 30. Wimpfin, 31. Gingenbach.

‡ Nuremberg, Rotheburg, Windſheim, Schweinfurt, Weiſſenburg.

§ Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Maine, Wetzlar, Friedberg.

‖ Cologne, Aix-la-Chapelle, Dortmund.

** Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Goſlar, Nordhauſen, Muhlhauſen.

in as beautiful a plain as can be imagined. It is one of the largeſt and handſomeſt cities of the empire. Many of the churches are ſtately, and adorned with curious workmanſhip and paintings. Its magnificent town-houſe is little inferior to that of Amſterdam. The colleges, public fountains, &c. are ſplendid; and the water towers, by which the whole city is ſupplied with water, are very curious. In ſhort, every thing here tends to impreſs the mind with ſuitable ideas of the grandeur of this city, when at the zenith of its proſperity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Then it was the principal commercial city in the ſouth of Germany. The town contains at preſent 36,000 inhabitants.

3. Ulm, in Swabia, lies on the Danube, over which is built a ſtone bridge. The inhabitants are 15,000.

4. Nuremberg, or Nurnberg, is a large well-built city, in the circle of Franconia. It is rendered pleaſant by the vaſt number of noblemen's ſeats, and fine villages, that adorn the neighbouring country. The city itſelf contains 500 ſtreets, and the greater part of the houſes are of ſtone. The number of inhabitants are not proportioned to the vaſt extent of the place, being only 30,000. Here watches were firſt invented, in 1477.

5. Frankfurt on the Maine, is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, along the river Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfurt and Saxenhauſen. Over the Maine is built a good ſtone bridge. This city is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and emperors; and here the golden bull is preſerved, which is the original of the fundamental laws of the empire. Here alſo is the general imperial poſt-office. Frankfurt may be pronounced a handſome, ſtrong, and rich place. Its trade is very great. The inhabitants are at leaſt 36,000 in number.

6. Worms, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, is a city often mentioned in hiſtory. Here many diets of the empire, &c. have formerly been held. The wine produced in the neighbourhood, is excellent. The inhabitants are 6000.

7. Spire, alſo in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was built before the birth of Chriſt. It was entirely deſtroyed by the French, in 1689, ſince which it has not recovered its former conſequence. The inhabitants are 5,500.

8. Wetzlar, another ancient city, in the ſame circle, is chiefly famous becauſe the imperial chamber court has been held there ſince the year 1693. It contains 8000 inhabitants.

9. Cologne, an ancient and celebrated city, in the circle of Weſtphalia, is ſeated on the river Rhine. It is fortified with ſtrong walls, flanked with eighty-three large towers, and ſurrounded with three ditches; but theſe fortifications being executed after the ancient manner, could make but an indifferent defence at preſent. Though one of the largeſt cities of Europe, it is at the ſame time one of the moſt gloomy. The inhabitants are 40,000, a ſmall number for ſo large a place; and the common people are very poor. This city is perhaps the moſt remarkable of any in the world, for the great number of precious relics it contains. Gunpowder was invented here in 1330, by Barthold Schwartz.

10. Aix-la-Chapelle, or Aachen, is alſo an ancient and celebrated city. All authors are agreed as to its antiquity, it being mentioned in Ceſar's commentaries, and the annals of Tacitus. It lies in a valley, and is ſurrounded by two walls. The houſes are well-built, the ſtreets clean, and the public buildings magnificent. The market place is very ſpacious. In the middle, before the ſtadthouſe, is a fountain of blue ſtones, which throws out water from ſix pipes, in a marble baſon placed beneath, thirty feet in circumference. The ſtadthouſe is adorned with the ſtatues of all the emperors ſince Charlemagne. This fabric has three ſtories, the upper of which is one entire room, of 162 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. In this, the newly elected emperors formerly entertained all the electors of the

empire. Aix-la-Chapelle is famous for its warm baths, and for the peace concluded here in the year 1748. Its trade is conſiderable, and the inhabitants are computed at 25,000.

11. Hamburg, in Lower Saxony, ſee page 441.

12. Lubeck, in Lower Saxony, ſee page 440.

13. Bremen, a large, populous, and ſtrong trading town, on the river Weſer. It is divided into four quarters, each of which has a burgomaſter; and in the middle there is a large market place, with the ſtatue of Rolando. The inhabitants are 40,000.

COINS AND MONIES OF ACCOUNT.] There is no coin made under the name, and with the image and arms of the emperor. Not only the electors, but many other princes of the empire, and the imperial cities, have the right of coining. Among the different feet or ſtandards for coining ſilver, the moſt noted are: the Zinna foot made in 1667, the Leipſic foot made in 1690, and the convention foot made in 1753. The latter is adopted in Auſtria, Bavaria, Electoral Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, and the Rhine circles.

The German gold coins are:

Portugalöſer, coined in	Hamburgh and Lubec, value,	24 Span. dol.
Severins,	Auſtria, about,	6
Auguſt dors,	Electoral Saxony,	3 2-3
Carolins,	Palatine Bavaria,	3 2-3
Georgs dor,	Hanover,	3 2-3
Friedrichs dor,	Pruſſian dominions,	3 2-3
Carl dor,	Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel,	3 2-3
Max dor,	Bavaria,	3 2-3
Ducats,	in ſeveral ſtates,	2

Of ſilver coins great quantities of ſpecies thaler are coined in Saxony. A ſpecies thaler is equal to one and one-third of a rix dollar, and nearly agrees in value with a Spaniſh dollar. A gulden (florin) is half a ſpecies thaler.

Of the monies wherein accounts are kept, the moſt common are: reichſthaler (rix dollars) reichſgulden (florins) and mark. According to the convention foot, the reichſthaler is little more than two thirds of a Spaniſh dollar, or ſixty-ſix cents; the reichſgulden, equal to half a Spaniſh dollar, or fifty cents. A mark banco of Hamburg, is one-third of a Spaniſh dollar, and a mark courant a little leſs.

Accounts are kept: 1. In reichſgulden (florins) in the ſouthern parts of Germany, namely, in the circles of Auſtria, Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia; in the ſtates of Mentz and Palatine in Lower Rhine; in Frankfurt on the Maine, and other places of the circle of the Upper Rhine; in Neuweid, Juliers, and Berg in Weſtphalia, and in Bohemia and Moravia. One reichſgulden (florin) is ſixty kreutzer, at four pfennige. In the duchy of Wurtemburg, a florin is ſubdivided into twenty-eight ſhillings, at ſix pfennige.

2. In rix dollars, in the northern parts of Germany, namely, in the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, in part of the circles of Weſtphalia, Upper and Lower Rhine, and in Luſatia and Sileſia. The ſubdiviſions of the rix dollars differ. In Leipſic and all electoral and ducal Saxony, in Berlin and the whole Mark Brandenburg, in the duchy of Magdeburg, the imperial city of Muhlhauſen, and all Luſatia, a rix dollar is 24 groſchen, at 12 pfennige. In Hanover, Brunſwic, Hildeſheim, Minden, Ravenſberg, Oſnabrig, and Paderborn, a rix dollar is 36 mariengroſchen, at eight pfennige; in Heſſe-Caſſel, thirty-two albus at nine pfennige; in Munſter, twenty eight ſhillings, at twelve pfennige; in Hamburg, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, Holſtein, and Swediſh Pomerania, forty-eight ſhillings, at twelve pfennige; in Bremen, ſeventy-two grot, at five ſchwar; in Aix la-Chapelle, fifty four mark, at ſix buſchen; in Cologne, eighty albus, at twelve heller; in Treves, fifty-four peter-

manngen; in Frankfort on the Main, ninety kreutzer, at four pfennige; in Breſlau and all Sileſia, thirty ſilbergroſchen, at twelve denaren; in Eaſt Frieſland, fifty-four ſtuver at ten witten; in Cleves, Pruſſian Guelderland, Mark, and Meurs, all in the circle of Weſtphalia, ſixty ſtuver, at four ort; at Tecklenburg and Oſnabrig, twenty-one ſhillings, at twelve pfennige.

3. Marks of ſixteen ſhillings, at twelve pfennige, are the monies of account in Hamburg, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, Holſtein, and other parts of Lower Saxony circle.

History.] The firſt notice of Germany, by ancient hiſtorians, occurs in the commentaries of Julius Ceſar. He ſays, that the Gauls, in the courſe of their domeſtic quarrels, had invited over the Germans to aſſiſt them in deciding the conteſt. From being the allies of one party, theſe foreigners very ſoon became the oppreſſors of both. In a few years, they multiplied, to an hundred and twenty thouſand, and there appeared no end to their demands, and depredations. Ceſar wiſhed only for a pretence to employ his legions; and at the deſire of ſome nations of the Gauls, he gave battle to theſe barbarians. Eighty thouſand Germans are ſaid to have been ſlain. Three years after this deciſive victory, an immenſe body of theſe people, to the amount, as Ceſar affirms, of four hundred and thirty thouſand perſons, were driven out of their country into Gaul, by the Suevi, a tribe of uncommon ferocity. Ceſar attacked the fugitives, who were routed with a prodigious ſlaughter. The Roman commander next threw a bridge over the Rhine, and entered Germany, not with a view to conqueſt, but by way of bravado. From this time, the wars of the Germans with the Roman empire, became almoſt inceſſant. In the latter end of the reign of Auguſtus, three entire legions, conſiſting of perhaps twenty thouſand men, were ſurpriſed and cut to pieces by Arminius, a German of ſuperior military talents. Tacitus has left behind him a treatiſe on the manners of the Germans. He expatiates on their martial and domeſtic virtues; but, after all that he has ſaid, it appears that they were a race of reſtleſs barbarians, whoſe thirſt for blood was inſatiable. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military Union, for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of the whole. At length the Roman power, directed by policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, which was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was invaded by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century, when Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior men, who ſometimes ariſe in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany untill the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, reſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of thoſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and in-

veteracy, disturbed the empire for several ages. The emperors were likewise frequently at war with the Turks; and the German princes often contended for the succession to the imperial dignity. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but unintersting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those who have since been distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. As they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they gradually increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus, while in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy and of the rights of the people. Otho I. having in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, obtained a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope and of granting investitures to Bishops. Henry V. in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers; but pope Benedict XII. refusing, in 1338, absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire, without the consent of the pope; that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in his ambitious projects at the commencement of his reign, his good fortune, at last, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown. The great duke of Sully, in his inestimable memoirs, has recorded his opinion of this emperor. He displays, in terms of contempt and indignation, the folly and guilt of the designs of Charles; and he embraces the same opportunity to reprobate, in the most unqualified language of abhorrence, the idea of a nation attempting to become powerful by foreign conquest. Ferdinand I. the brother of Charles, who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. His son Maximilian was declared king of the Romans in the lifetime of Ferdinand, who died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife of the elector of Bavaria, and her posterity. We mention this destination, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian

II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. Rodolph was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans, and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The danger to which they were exposed, from the ambition of Matthias, at last reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias hoped to exterminate both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias, dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand II.; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to James I. of England. Frederic accepted of the crown; but he soon lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague; and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them, at this time, many able commanders, who led gallant armies, and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Christian, duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark declared for them; and they were secretly supported by Richlieu, the French minister, who was averse to the aggrandizement of the house of Austria. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the Evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, a famous German general. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. We have already described his amazing victories and progress, till, in 1632, he was killed at the battle of Lutzen. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had formed a phalanx of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which, till the present war against France, formed the basis of the political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637. His son Ferdinand III. died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and unfortunate prince. He had two great antagonists to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and he was unfortunate in his wars with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene of Savoy was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being received into the Austrian service, and promoted to the grade of general, gave the Turks the first checks that they received in Hungary. By the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could hardly have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The ſucceſſes of the duke of Marlborough did not prove to be ſo deciſive as they were at firſt ſuppoſed. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould bear the burden of a war, which was chiefly carried on for his advantage. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his torpor and ſelfiſhneſs. He died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male children, he was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies had been endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles made a feeble attempt to continue the war; but found himſelf incapable, when forſaken by the Engliſh. He was therefore obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat, from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They ſuffered another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts: and next year, the peace of Paſſarowitz was concluded between them and the Turks. Charles employed his leiſure in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connexions of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I.; and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement, were the ſole objects of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empreſs-qeeen, he having no ſons. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, allured by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed his claims upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor was very unfortunate in a war with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices that he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and there was no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France under cardinal Fleury, happened, at that time, to be pacific; and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to allay the apprehenſions of the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all the plans he had formed, muſt have been overthrown, but for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked by various deſpots. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army, entered, and conquered Sileſia, which, he ſaid, had been unjuſtly diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria aſſerted claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction, in which they were joined by Fance; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne

after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January, 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to free herſelf from the king of Pruſſia, was forced, by a formal treaty, to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia.

Her youth, her beauty, her ſufferings, and the fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her infant ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia. Charles VII. was at this time miſerable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as his anceſtor in queen Anne's reign had been, for his alliance with France. He would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily rejected all accommodation. This obſtinacy afforded a pretence for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, in order to ſupport the imperial dignity. But, though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired with great loſs into Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, the emperor, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor by the title of Francis I. He enjoyed nothing but the title; for his ſpouſe did not grant him even the ſhadow of authority.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fountenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt the king of Pruſſia. The latter defeated the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſo impolitic, that George II. guaranteed Sileſia to the Pruſſians, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, Frederic diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this, he drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain as emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views coinciding with thoſe of the empreſs-queen and the king of Poland, who were ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and George the ſecond againſt that of the French. Upon theſe principles, all former differences between thoſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l. to Frederic during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.

The elector of Saxony had been weak and wicked enough to enter into the conſpiracy, which was formed for dividing the Pruſſian dominions. Frederic invaded his electorate. The Saxon army, to the number of ſeventeen thouſand men, retired to the ſtrong camp of Pirna. Frederic inveſted it, and Braun with an Auſtrian army attempted to give relief to the Saxons. His troops were repulſed in the battle of Lowoſitz, and the Saxon army, conſiſting of ſeventeen thouſand men, ſurrendered at

diſcretion, and were enliſted by the king of Pruſſia. The next campaign was, ſo early as the 6th of May, diſtinguiſhed by the battle of Prague, the moſt deſtructive perhaps that has been fought in the eighteenth century. The Pruſſians were victorious, with the loſs of eighteen thouſand men. Of the Auſtrians, nineteen thouſand were ſlain, and five thouſand taken priſoners. This is the ſtatement of Frederic himſelf. His loſs would have been much leſs, had not Mannſtein, who commanded a part of the right wing of the Pruſſians, attacked the enemy in a ſituation almoſt impregnable, without waiting for orders. This act of temerity deranged the plan of Frederic; and the victory coſt him, as he acknowledges, an exorbitant price. Part of the vanquiſhed army, to the number of forty thouſand men, fled into Prague. Frederic attempted to reduce it, and began his operations by a terrible bombardment. The immenſe garriſon ſuffered much by famine; but count Daun advanced to relieve them, at the head of ſixty thouſand Auſtrians, and it was neceſſary for the king of Pruſſia to give him battle. Leaving part of his forces to continue the blockade of Prague, he advanced to meet the enemy. They engaged at Colin, on the 17th of June, 1757, and here Frederic, who, ſince his ſucceſſion to the throne, had gained ſeven great victories, firſt experienced a defeat. The battle was extremely hard fought, and it was owing to the raſhneſs of Mannſtein, by engaging a ſecond time unſeaſonably, that the Pruſſians loſt it. Eight thouſand of their infantry fell; and the carnage of the Auſtrians was undoubtedly very great. The king in his memoirs ſays, that if he could only have commanded a reſerve of four battalions, he would have won the day, which would have rendered him in fact almoſt maſter of the German empire. The ſiege of Prague was inſtantly raiſed, and had Daun poſſeſſed courage or activity to purſue his advantage, the conſequences muſt have been fatal to Pruſſia. So ſingular were the difficulties of Frederic, that he found it requiſite to leave the preſence of his victorious enemy, and give battle in another quarter of his dominions to a French army. They were routed at Roſbach on the 5th of November, with the loſs of ten thouſand men; and it was his next taſk to engage count Daun, who in his abſence had defeated his general, the prince of Bevern, with great ſlaughter on both ſides. Daun had ſixty thouſand men, and the king only thirty three thouſand. He acknowledges that on this battle, which was fought on the 5th of December, 1757, depended the fate of Pruſſia. By a variety of movements he deceived the enemy, and caſt his whole army on the front, flank, and rear of one of the Auſtrian wings. The conteſt was ſupported with the moſt obſtinate intrepidity on both ſides; but the Auſtrians were compelled to yield. Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, was immediately beſieged, and ſoon after captured by the Pruſſians. The battle and the ſiege together coſt the Auſtrians forty-one thouſand four hundred and forty-ſeven men. Thus ended the ſecond campaign of the celebrated war of ſeven years, a war which, when conſidered in all its circumſtances, has no parallel in hiſtory.

The third campaign began by the ſiege of Schweidnitz, which ſurrendered to the Pruſſians on the 14th of April, 1758. The king next attempted the capture of Olmutz, the capital of Moravia; but, after overcoming many difficulties, he was, on the 1ſt of July, forced to quit his works before that place. In June, of the preceding year, the Ruſſians had invaded Pruſſia, which then lay at a conſiderable diſtance from the other dominions of the court of Berlin. They have ſince been united by the ſeizure of the Weſtern Pruſſia, at the diviſion of Poland, in the year 1771. The Ruſſian army conſiſted of one hundred thouſand men, and the Pruſſians of twenty-four thouſand. A battle enſued at Jœgerndorf, on the 30th of Auguſt, 1757. The Pruſſians, who attacked an enemy four times their number, in ſtrong entrenchments, were repulſed. But the Ruſſians retreated ſoon after. They had re-

turned into Pruſſia, in the Summer of 1758, and had begun the ſiege of Cuſtrin. The whole country around this town was ravaged by Coſſacks and other barbarians, who followed the Ruſſian camp. The villages were in flames, and the inhabitants robbed and often murdered. Frederic advanced by one of theſe incredible marches, which excite, perhaps, ſtill greater ſurpriſe than his victories, and, on the 26th of Auguſt, he attacked the enemy. The king, in his memoirs, ſays, that if he had not been ſtraitened for want of time, he could eaſily, by a few marches, have forced the Ruſſians to quit the country, without riſking a battle. On that day, fifteen thouſand of theſe ſavages were cut to pieces; for the Pruſſian cavalry gave them no quarters. An hundred and three field pieces, twenty-ſeven pair of colours and ſtandards, eighty-two officers, and about two thouſand private men, were taken. The victors loſt about thirteen hundred men; and, had not their powder fallen ſhort, the whole Ruſſian army would, moſt likely, have been deſtroyed. The remains of the invaders fled with precipitation, and with additional loſs, from the confines of Pruſſia. Frederic had not leiſure to purſue this advantage, being compelled to march back to the former ſcene of action, to reſiſt Daun. On the night of the 13th of October, the king was attacked in his camp at Hochkirchen by the Auſtrian general. He was reduced to the neceſſity of a retreat, with the loſs of three thouſand men. Of a conſiderable number of priſoners whom he had ſeized in the confuſion of this obſtinate engagement, only one general, and ſeven hundred men were brought ſafe to head quarters. The ſingularity of Frederic having been ſurpriſed, has induced hiſtorians to magnify this affair into a defeat; but Daun on the ſame day returned into his former camp, and "did not," ſays the king, "appear to have obtained a victory." Keith, a Scotchman, and ſome other officers of the higheſt merit, on the ſide of the Pruſſians, were ſlain.

On the 23d of June, 1759, the Pruſſian army, under general Wedel, attacked the Ruſſians not far from Croſſen, and were repulſed with the loſs of between four and five thouſand of their troops. On the 12th of July following, this army was attacked at Cunnerſdorf, by Frederic himſelf, at the head, as has been ſaid, of about fifty thouſand men. The enemy had been reinforced by Laudohn, the Auſtrian general, with twelve thouſand cavalry, and amounted to at leaſt double the number of the Pruſſians. Frederic attacked them, drove them from ſeveral batteries with a terrible ſlaughter, and was on the point of gaining a complete victory. His account of the reverſe of fortune, deſerves to be inſerted in his own words.—"The enemy abandoned a grand battery, at the Jewiſh burial-ground. On this battery, the Pruſſian infantry, which was only eight hundred paces diſtant, made an attempt to ſeize. *Who but muſt remark the ſlender thread, by which victory hangs ſuſpended!* As they came up, within an hundred and fifty paces, Laudohn, perceiving the error of the Ruſſians in forſaking their battery, arrived with his reſerve ſooner than the Pruſſians. He inſtantly cauſed the artillery to be loaded with caſe ſhot, which played upon, and deranged the aſſailants. The attack was ſeveral times renewed, but it was impoſſible to carry this battery, which commanded the whole ground. Laudohn, perceiving the countenance of the Pruſſians leſs firm, attacked them on the right and left with cavalry; the confuſion became general, and the troops fled in diſorder." The Pruſſians loſt ten thouſand men, including three thouſand priſoners; and the Ruſſians twenty-four thouſand. In October following, an entire army of Pruſſians, conſiſting of between twelve and fifteen thouſand men, under general Finck, were forced to ſurrender their arms to Daun. Yet, after a campaign ſo fatal, Frederic ſtill found himſelf in poſſeſſion of all the ground which he had occupied during the former winter.

In 1760, the firſt affair of conſequence was the deſtruction of a Pruſſian army of eight thouſand men, under general Fouquet. They were defeated by Laudohn

at the head of twenty-eight thouſand. Nobody but the king of Pruſſia would have dreamed of victory after ſuch ſevere loſſes. His troops had been ſo much deſtroyed, that one half of them were recruits from the Saxon peaſantry, and the reſt deſerters. Yet, with an army of thirty thouſand men, he oppoſed Daun and Laudohn, commanding thrice that number. They determined to ſurpriſe him in his camp. "Daun," ſays he, "had more than troops ſufficient. It was not numbers which he wanted, but the talent to employ them with timely promptitude." To accompliſh their deſign with greater certainty, the two Auſtrian generals propoſed to attack him from two different quarters with their reſpective armies. He ſuſpected their intentions, and had adopted proper meaſures to diſappoint them. At this critical moment, on the 15th of Auguſt, in the evening, an Auſtrian officer, who had deſerted, was brought to the king. He was intoxicated, and could only ſtammer out that he had a ſecret of importance to reveal. Some baſons of warm water were poured down his throat to relieve his ſtomach, after which he informed the king, that Daun was to attack him that very night. The Pruſſians advanced in an oppoſite direction, and, ſome hours before day-light, fell in with Laudohn, who was puſhing forward to ſupport the attack of Daun. The Auſtrians were completely routed. Four thouſand were killed on the ſpot, and ſix thouſand were made priſoners. The king had bread only for one day. He had eleven hundred wounded men to guard, and ſix thouſand priſoners. Daun might ſtill with facility have prevented him from drawing proviſions from Schweidnitz, and the Ruſſians, who were approaching with a third army, could have blocked up his paſſage to Breſlau. He diſpatched a letter to his brother Henry, informing him that he had entirely defeated the Auſtrians, and would very ſoon join Henry himſelf, in order to pay the ſame compliment to the Ruſſians. The letter was entruſted to a peaſant, who was perſuaded to ſuffer himſelf to be made a priſoner by the ſcouts of the Ruſſian army. Their general Czernicheff had ſcarcely read the letter, when he began his retreat. This was exactly what Frederic wanted. He could not, however, hinder a combination of the forces of theſe two nations much longer. On the 9th of October, twenty thouſand Ruſſians and eighteen thouſand Auſtrians entered Berlin. Sixteen thouſand of the Pruſſian forces retired before them, as the city, from its vaſt extent, and its want of fortifications, was incapable of defence. Had the king himſelf been at the head of thoſe ſixteen thouſand men, perhaps the conjoined forces would not have waited for his approach. Frederic advanced to the relief of Berlin. The enemy retired without delay, on the 12th of October, after being in poſſeſſion of that capital for about three days. To obtain proper winter quarters for his army, it was requiſite to drive Daun from his entrenchments at Torgau. It has been ſaid, on reſpectable authority, that the Auſtrian army amounted to eighty thouſand men, and that of Frederic only to fifty thouſand. Of the Pruſſians three thouſand were ſlain, three thouſand made priſoners, and ſeven thouſand more wounded. But the Auſtrians loſt twenty thouſand men, of whom eight thouſand, with four of their generals, were taken.

The year 1761 was not diſtinguiſhed by any battle of equal importance. On the 8th of January, 1762, the empreſs of Ruſſia died, and her ſucceſſor, the unfortunate Peter III. "happened," ſays Frederic, "to poſſeſs an excellent heart, and ſentiments more noble, and more elevated, than are uſually found among ſovereigns." He was in peaceable poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Pruſſia, which in the courſe of this dreadful ſtruggle had been wreſted from its native ſovereign. He reſtored this prize to its lawful monarch, and demanded in return only the alliance and the friendſhip of Frederic. "A proceeding ſo uncommon, ſo generous, ſo noble," ſays the royal hiſtorian, "deſerves not only to be tranſmitted to poſterity, but ſhould be written with letters of gold in the cabinets of kings."

There is no other monarch in Europe, whose dominions are so thinly peopled, as those of Petersburg. The empress Elizabeth had supported five bloody campaigns against Frederic, with the loss, most likely, of two hundred thousand of her subjects, that she might conquer the kingdom of Prussia, though her empire was already by far the most extensive in the world. She gained the useless prize, which was restored by her successor, without his even asking an equivalent. History has not recorded a more signal example of guilt and folly, than in the conduct of Elizabeth, or of justice and magnanimity, than in that of Peter.

From this period, the war languished, and, happily for mankind, was, on the 15th of February, 1763, terminated by a general peace. The only action, after that of Torgau, which deserves notice in an epitome of this kind, was a victory obtained by Prince Henry of Prussia, in the end of October, 1762, over the Austrians. This affair, in which the vanquished army lost eight thousand of their number, becomes the more remarkable, because, except the victory of Kesseldorf, which was gained upon the 15th of December, 1745, by the prince of Anhalt, it was the only action of great importance that was ever won by the troops of the king of Prussia, in the absence of their monarch. By the peace, neither the empress nor Frederic obtained a foot of territory. Prussia had been deprived by the war, of an hundred and eighty thousand soldiers, besides thirty-three thousand of the peasantry and others who perished principally by the ravages of the Russians. Those barbrians had lost an hundred and twenty thousand men. The Austrians estimated their loss at an hundred and forty thousand; the French computed theirs at two hundred thousand; the English and their German allies reckoned an hundred and sixty thousand; the Swedes, twenty-five thousand; and the troops of the circles of the empire, who had made but a very sorry appearance, twenty thousand. These different numbers amount altogether to eight hundred and eighty-six thousand men. But this estimate, given by the king, is certainly very much inferior to the truth, with respect to Russia and Austria. It may be affirmed, without presumption, that the destruction of human lives in this furious and useless contest, did not fall short of a million.

In all the European editions of this work, it has been affirmed, that towards the close of the war, the empress-queen, in spite of the defection of Russia, could have overwhelmed Frederic, if it had not been for *the wife backwardness of the other German princes to annihilate the house of Brandenburg*, and *the visible backwardness of her own generals to execute her orders*. We have in vain searched, through various publications, for any evidences of this capacity on the part of the empress-queen, or of this imaginary reluctance on the part of her generals. As to the latter, they were mere soldiers of fortune, whose importance depended entirely on their implicit submission to the orders of their mistress; nor is there the least reason to believe, that they would have dared to hesitate about executing the most impolitic or barbarous commission.

Germany enjoyed tranquillity from this time, for about sixteen years. Upon the death of the emperor Francis, in 1765, his son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans, in 1764, succeeded him in the imperial title. The late emperor, as we remarked above, had never been suffered by the empress-queen, to enjoy even the vestige of influence. In the war of seven years, he sold forage, as a private merchant, to the king of Prussia, when fighting with his own wife. He even lent her money to assist her in supporting her campaigns, upon receiving bonds, with proper security for their payment. Joseph, the eldest son of this extraordinary pair, was more ambitious than his father had been, and possessed a considerable share of authority, during the subsequent years of the reign of Maria Theresa. He was a partner in the execrable dismemberment of Poland, in the year 1771, and the king

of Pruſſia, in his account of that tranſaction, aſcribes its origin to the reſtleſs ambition of the empreſs-queen. She had excited the confederates of Poland to a civil war, and there was the ſtrongeſt ground to believe, as Frederic affirms, that ſhe would have interfered in the conteſt between Turkey and Ruſſia, in behalf of the former. Her miniſter Kaunitz was even baſe enough to obtain from the court of Conſtantinople, a ſum in advance, on the promiſe of the aſſiſtance of the empreſs. At this time he had ſigned the treaty with the Turks, and a counter treaty, as to the diviſion of Poland, with the courts of Peterſburg and Berlin; nor was it known, which of them, his miſtreſs or he, would have had the leaſt ſcruple of breaking. Frederic ſays, that the partition of Poland was the only meaſure, by which a freſh war in Germany could be avoided. He does not attempt to vindicate the diſmemberment, upon any pretence, but that of political expediency, and the abſolute neceſſity of ſoothing the paſſions of Maria Thereſa. This woman has been celebrated for her piety, which produced nothing but monuments of illiberal ſuperſtition, and atrocious deſpotiſm. Though, after the loſs of Sileſia, ſhe poſſeſſed a much larger extent of dominion than almoſt any human capacity was equal to the taſk of governing with propriety, her rage for empire was inſatiable. She declared, as her great antagoniſt has told us, that ſhe would rather part with her under petticoat, than give up Sileſia. She adhered to this declaration, till it had coſt Germany a war of ſeven years, and Europe nine hundred thouſand or a million of lives. Six years of peace had ſcarce elapſed, when ſhe was once more ready to have plunged the north of Europe into an Abyſs of bloodſhed; and this cataſtrophe was only prevented by the moſt ſhameleſs tranſaction of modern ages, the partition of Poland. Yet the petty debaucheries of Meſſalina are mentioned with horror; while Maria Thereſa is revered by one half of mankind as a ſaint, and by the other, as a virtuous and accompliſhed ſovereign. The death of the elector of Bavaria produced, in 1778, a ſhort war, in which Joſeph on the one part, and the king of Pruſſia and the elector of Saxony on the other, were the principal parties. The claims of the emperor were extremely unjuſt. Vaſt armies were, on each ſide, brought into the field; conſiſting of not leſs, than between ſix and eight hundred thouſand men. No action happened of much importance, and, in 1779, an accommodation took place. Joſeph acquired a trifling tract of territory, at an expenſe, ten or perhaps an hundred times greater than it was worth. Into this conteſt the empreſs-queen was forced with the utmoſt reluctance. Though ſhe had diſcovered ſuch profound contempt for the ſufferings, and the lives of her ſubjects, yet ſhe was not diveſted of the common ſenſibilities of a parent. Her ſon, the emperor, had, in the courſe of the firſt campaign, expoſed himſelf to perſonal danger; and from her correſpondence with Frederic, as recorded in the memoirs of that monarch, it appears, that her anxiety for the ſafety of Joſeph, haſtened the termination of hoſtilities.

The emperor, had he died in an early part of his reign, would have deſcended to poſterity with ſome degree of reputation, of which he unfortunately ſurvived the laſt remnant. When young, he was univerſally and juſtly reſpected for his good ſenſe, and humanity. He cultivated an intimacy with men of letters. He endeavoured to aboliſh in his dominions the feudal ſyſtem. He ſuppreſſed ſeveral of the religious orders; and though this ſtep was accompanied, in ſome caſes, with much hardſhip and injuſtice to the individual friars and nuns, who were the immediate objects of it, the enlightened part of mankind were diſpoſed to approve the general principle on which it was founded. He prohibited, in courts of juſtice, the uſe of the torture, that utmoſt reproach of modern juriſprudence. He granted a very liberal toleration of religious opinions. Amidſt an immenſe maſs of capricious and tyrannical edicts, he relieved the inferior claſſes of his ſubjects

from many grievances. But, when deprived of the ſuperior cunning and abilities of his mother, his character inceſſantly declined. He was at once, like Peter the firſt of Ruſſia, fired with a rage of foreign conqueſt, and domeſtic legiſlation. But he had neither the good fortune, nor the genius of that ſplendid barbarian. His attempt to open the navigation of the Scheldt, of which we have already taken notice, has indeed been vindicated, by candid and intelligent writers; but his method of enforcing, and his levity in deſerting his demands, diminiſhed his political reputation. His conduct in the Netherlands has been deſcribed under a former head. His demolition of the chain of fortreſſes in that country, the cauſe of ſo many bloody conteſts, can be aſcribed only to infatuation. It ſerves to explain the ſubſequent progreſs of Dumourier, ſo rapid, when compared with that of Marlborough. He entered, in 1788, into a war with the Turks, profeſſedly but as an auxiliary to the empreſs of Ruſſia, without the ſmalleſt pretence of provocation from the Ottomans, who had made the moſt humiliating conceſſions to ſatisfy his rapacity, and to flatter his pride. At the time of his death, he may be ſaid to have drank the bittereſt dregs of the cup of human miſery. Brabant was torn from him; Hungary aſſerting its independence; his armies, on the frontiers of Turkey, at beſt, in a very critical ſituation; his treaſury exhauſted; and his ſiſter, the queen of France, juſt commencing the dreadful ſeries of her calamities. As the laſt pang of diſtreſs, his daughter-in-law, the princeſs Elizabeth, expired, a few hours before himſelf, in child-birth. Adverſity ſeems to have ſoftened a heart of more than uſual hardneſs, and ſome paſſages in his will announce a melancholy ſenſibility ſuitable to his condition. He died at Vienna, on the 20th of February, 1790, in the forty-ninth year of his age, in the twenty-ſixth of his reign, as emperor of the Romans; and the tenth, as king of Hungary and Bohemia. By his firſt wife, the Princeſs of Parma, he had a daughter, Thereſa Elizabeth, born in 1762; but ſhe is dead. In 1765, he was married a ſecond time, to the princeſs Joſephina Maria, of Bavaria. She died in 1767. By her, he had no children, and he did not eſpouſe a third conſort. An epitaph, which he is ſaid to have once wrote for himſelf, was thus accurate, even to minuteneſs. "Here lies Joſeph the ſecond, unfortunate in all his undertakings."

Few princes have aſcended the throne, at a more critical period than Leopold the ſucceſſor of Joſeph. On the ſide of Turkey, he was involved in a deſtructive and unfortunate conteſt, from which it was impoſſible to retreat without diſgrace. The nobles of Hungary were extremely diſcontented; and the Netherlands, the richeſt and moſt flouriſhing part of his dominions, were in a ſtate of victorious rebellion. His treaſury was exhauſted, and the flower of his armies had periſhed in the preceding campaigns. By a ſeries of good conduct and of good fortune, Leopold ſoon reſtored the importance of the houſe of Auſtria.

Under the article of the NETHERLANDS, we have already recited a part of the hiſtory of the revolution in that country. This affair was terminated by the prudence of Leopold. The particulars are as follow. In the month of January, 1790, juſt before the death of Joſeph, the Belgic ſtates had formed the outlines of a federal conſtitution. But here, as in the other old governments of Europe, a powerful ariſtocracy oppoſed the completeneſs of reformation. The leaders of the revolt were of that claſs; and their particular privileges were but ſo many infringements on the general rights of the citizens. When Joſeph ſubverted the conſtitution of theſe provinces, the privileges of the ſuperior orders were involved in one common ruin with the liberties of the people. All parties, therefore, were at firſt unanimous in reclaiming the ancient ſyſtem, as more tolerable than the tyranny of Auſtria. But, when they had purchaſed their freedom at the price of their blood, the enlightened part of the community conceived, that, in eſtabliſhing the new government, ſome alterations ought to be adopted. They

propoſed to copy the modern and liberal ideas of civil policy; and to ſuppreſs ſuch parts of the ancient ſyſtem as were unjuſt and oppreſſive. This plan did not correſpond with the ſentiments of the ruling powers. They beſtowed additional privileges on the nobles and the clergy, and impoſed additional burdens on the people.

They began by a public declaration of intolerance in religion. The liberty of the preſs was prohibited; and ſtate licenſers were appointed. Arbitrary impriſonment was permitted; and the friends of reformation were inſulted, by the moſt alarming riots at Bruſſels and other places.

The death of Joſeph was an inauſpicious event for the independence of the Netherlands. Perſonal hatred, and dread of his revenge, had produced no ſmall ſhare of the reſiſtance which he encountered. Leopold had offended nobody, and though his adminiſtration in Tuſcany, had, in ſome reſpects, been capricious and deſpotic, it was, upon the whole, benevolent and liberal. The character of the new ſovereign himſelf, was mild and popular. One of his firſt meaſures was to publiſh a conciliatory proclamation, inviting the revolted provinces to return to their allegiance. He pledged himſelf to reſtore their civil and eccleſiaſtical conſtitution, and promiſed to redreſs every grievance. He likewiſe entered into ſeparate negociations with the leaders of the two contending parties; a circumſtance which increaſed their mutual averſion and diſtruſt.

The conduct of the governors of the Netherlands was badly adapted to ſtrengthen their cauſe. Their ſenſe of augmenting danger, did not induce them to purſue humane and generous meaſures to unite the affections of the nation. They commenced a career of tyranny, more odious and intolerable, if poſſible, than that of Joſeph himſelf. The dungeons were crouded with ſtate priſoners. For the regulation of their armies, the moſt ſanguinary code of laws was eſtabliſhed, that has, perhaps, ever been heard of ſince the days of Draco. To complete the impolicy and abſurdity of their proceedings, ſeveral of the firſt nobility were arreſted as traitors. Their real crime was, that they had been ſolicitous to extend to the inferior claſſes of the community the advantages of a better government. Hence, this party was at once thrown into the ſcale of Leopold.

As one ſpecimen of the adminiſtration of the maſters of Belgium, we ſhall mention their treatment of the French clergy. They expreſſed the utmoſt reſentment at the proceedings of the revolutioniſts in France, for the confiſcation of the eſtates of the monaſteries; and, as an evidence of their deteſtation of this meaſure, they themſelves confiſcated the eſtates of the French monks in the Netherlands. Thus they did exactly what the French reformers would have done, had they been in poſſeſſion of the country.

Van der Merſch, their general, had acquired much reputation by his conduct; but, having incurred the ſuſpicion of the Belgic congreſs, he was committed priſoner to the caſtle of Anvers. He was ſucceeded in the command of the army by baron Schoenfield, a Pruſſian. This officer was as arbitrary as the leaders of the revolt could deſire. He hanged thirty ſoldiers in one day, for having deſerted their poſts; and he forced a great number of able officers to quit the ſervice. On the 23d of September, 1790, the inſurgents, to the amount of ſixty thouſand men, came to a deciſive engagement with the Auſtrians, who were only a fourth of that number. The Belgians were defeated with the ſlaughter of eight or ten thouſand men. Multitudes were cut to pieces while begging for mercy. A number were hanged on the field of battle, and among the reſt an hundred and ten of the clergy. Forty-three thouſand Auſtrian troops ſoon after ſpread over the Netherlands. The deſertion of the powers of Europe, on whom the inſurgents depended for protection, ſtruck them with general diſmay; and the domination of Leopold was reſtored almoſt

without the pretence of military oppoſition. On the firſt of January, 1791, *Te Deum* was ſung at Bruſſels, to celebrate the ſucceſs of the conqueror. He had ſufficient wiſdom and humanity to uſe his victory with moderation; and the Belgians appear, upon the whole, to have had no reaſon for regretting the good fortune of the Auſtrian arms. Leopold, in the Summer of 1790, had entered into a negociation with the Ottomans, which ended in a treaty, by which the conqueſts on both ſides were reſtored. Such was the termination of a war into which Joſeph had entered without even the ſemblance of provocation, which involved him in prodigious debts, and coſt him the lives of perhaps an hundred and fifty thouſand men.

Leopold was elected king of the Romans on the 30th of September, 1790, and was crowned emperor, on the 9th of the following October. His interpoſition in the affairs of France forms the only other event of his ſhort reign, after the reduction of the Netherlands, that deſerves notice in this work. The ſame reaſons which have induced us to defer the ſequel of the hiſtory of the United Provinces, make it proper to defer that of Germany till we arrive at the article of France. Leopold died on the firſt of March, 1792, of an inflammatory fever which proved fatal upon the third day of his illneſs. He was born on the firſt of May, 1747, and his reign, computing from the death of his brother Joſeph, laſted only two years, and eight days. He was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Francis the ſecond, the preſent poſſeſſor of the imperial crown of Germany. Leopold was of a feeble conſtitution, but libidinous in his manners. He ſupported ſeveral miſtreſſes, and immediately after his death, his widow, who had borne him a very numerous family of about twenty children, diſplayed her attachment to female virtue by the expulſion of theſe ladies from Vienna; a ſtriking example of the mutability of fortune!

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. THIS country is bounded to the north by part of Samogitia; to the ſouth, by Poland Proper, and Maſovia; to the eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about an hundred and ſixty miles, and its greateſt breadth about an hundred and twelve.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn. The country affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game, wild boars, foxes, &c. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſh; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſt towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations. Of theſe rivers, the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, Pruſſia has become a reſpectable power on the continent of Europe. Its territories lie ſcattered in various parts of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, Bohemia, the Netherlands, and other countries. For the ſake of perſpicuity, we have arranged them in the following table.

Names of the countries.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	
Poland.	Ducal Pruſſia	9,950	100	112	KONINGSBERG	54-43 N. lat.
	Royal Pruſſia	6,400	118	104	Elbing	21-35 E. lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin	
	Pomerania	4,820	150	63	Camin	
	Swediſh Pomerania	2,991	90	48	Stetin	
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg	
	Halberſtadt	450	42	17	Halberſtadt	
Bohemia.	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz	
	Sileſia	10,000	196	92		
	Minden	595	42	26	Minden	
Weſtphalia.	Ravenſburg	525	38	34	Ravenſburg	
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen	
	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves	
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs	
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham	
	Eaſt Frieſland	690	46	32	Emden	
	Lippe	25	8	4	Lipſtadt	
	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich	
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg	
Netherlands.	Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders	
Switzerland.	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel.	
	Total	51,281				

We confine ourſelves, in this place, chiefly to an account of Pruſſia. The other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries in which they lie.

Pruſſia is indebted for its political importance, to the extraordinary talents of Frederic the ſecond. It is likewiſe from the writings of this monarch, that we are chiefly to derive our moſt authentic and intereſting information, concerning both its civil and military progreſs. We have, in the preceding article, frequently cited the hiſtorical memoirs of this celebrated monarch, becauſe they differ, in numberleſs points of fact, from other writers. The motives of action are traced up to their ſource. The characters of the ſovereigns and the nations of Europe are delineated with candour, and without ceremony. The royal hiſtorian has acknowledged his own errors with the frankneſs and ſimplicity becoming a great man. He attacks without ſcruple, every ſort of popular prejudice. Conſidered merely as a chaſte and elegant author, he deſerves an uncommon degree of praiſe. But as a comprehenſive repoſitory of that ſort of knowledge which can be learned no where elſe, his writings deſerve a ſtill greater ſhare of eſtimation. His poſthumous works extend to thirteen volumes. They have been publiſhed ſince his death, at Berlin, by his favourite miniſter; and it muſt be conſidered as the moſt aſtoniſhing of all literary wonders, that his ſucceſſor hath ſuffered them to appear, at leaſt in their preſent form, becauſe almoſt every page contains truths the moſt offenſive to the ears of deſpotiſm.

Of the works of the king of Pruſſia, there is no portion more inſtructive than that part of his memoirs after the war of ſeven years, wherein he relates the meaſures which he employed to reſtore the proſperity of his dominions. He thus deſcribes their ſituation at the end of that conteſt. The picture is drawn by the hand of a maſter, and muſt excite the attention of every reader.

"It is neceſſary," ſays Frederic, "that we ſhould imagine countries entirely ravaged, where the traces of former habitations were ſcarcely diſcoverable; towns almoſt eraſed from the earth; others half conſumed by the flames; thirteen thouſand houſes of which no veſtige remained; fields lying fallow; the inhabitants

deſtitute of the corn requiſite for their ſupport; the farmers in want of ſixty thouſand horſes for the plough; and a diminution of five hundred thouſand inhabitants, ſince the year 1756; a very conſiderable number in a population of only four millions, and five hundred thouſand. The noble and the peaſant had been pillaged, ranſomed, and foraged, by ſo many different armies, that nothing was left them except life, and the miſerable rags by which their nakedneſs was concealed. They had not ſufficient credit even to ſatisfy the daily wants of nature. There was no longer any police in the towns. To a ſpirit of equity and regularity, baſe ſelf-intereſt, diſorder, and anarchy had ſucceeded. The colleges of juſtice and of finance, had been rendered inactive, by the frequent invaſions of ſuch numerous enemies. The ſlumber of the laws produced a licentiouſneſs of ſpirit in the public, and hence, avarice and rapacity took birth. The noble, the merchant, the farmer, the labourer, the manufacturer, all ſtrove who ſhould ſet the higheſt price on their commodities, their proviſions, and their induſtry; and only ſeemed active to effect their mutual ruin. Such was the fatal ſpectacle which ſo many provinces, that had lately been ſo flouriſhing, preſented at the concluſion of the war. "There is no deſcription, however pathetic, that can poſſibly approach the deep, the afflicting, the mournful impreſſion which the ſight of them produced." The king proceeds to inform us, by what method he reſtored his territories to their former ſituation. In the courſe of this dreadful war, he had neither added a ſingle new impoſt nor contracted any foreign debt; and yet he was enabled, at the end of it, to remit a great proportion of the taxes paid by his ſubjects. What is ſtill more incomprehenſible, his treaſury ſupplied reſources for the re-building of the towns and villages. His magazines furniſhed his people with corn to ſow their lands, and likewiſe for their immediate ſubſiſtence. Thirty-five thouſand horſes, which had been deſtined for the uſe of the artillery, and waggons of the army, were employed in agriculture. Two millions three hundred and thirty-nine thouſand crowns were given to the provinces, with which they diſcharged the debts that they had contracted during the war, in order to pay their contributions, and to ſatisfy thoſe impoſitions which the vagrant enemy had exacted. Multiplied largeſſes reſtored courage to the Pruſſians, who had begun to deſpair amidſt their ſufferings. The king dug canals; he drained marſhes; in ſhort, he neglected no meaſure which could, perhaps, have been deviſed by the duke of Sully himſelf, to ſecure the happineſs of his people. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, began in a few years to flouriſh. To enter, at preſent, into a farther detail, would treſpaſs upon the limits of this work. "That the reſult," ſays he, "may be known, the beſt method will be to compare the population of the year 1740, with that of the year 1779; of which the following is an abſtract.

Provinces.	1740. No. Inhabitants.	1779. No. Inhabitants.
Pruſſia,	370,000	780,000
Brandenburg,	480,000	710,000
Magdeburg & Halberſtadt,	220,000	280,000
Sileſia,	1,100,000	1,520,000
	2,170,000	3,290,000

"Increaſe, one million one hundred and twenty thouſand."—The reader will obſerve, by comparing this ſtatement with the preceding table, that the king does not comprehend in theſe calculations, his part of Weſtphalia, and ſome other ſcattered territories. The augmentation in the number of his ſubjects, within the ſpace of thirty-nine years, is however very great. But it muſt add infinitely to our ſur-

priſe, if we reflect, that, during the ſame period, Frederic had been engaged in four bloody wars, in the courſe of which, his armies had fought above twenty pitched battles, and that in one of theſe wars only, he loſt, by his own account, one hundred and eighty thouſand ſoldiers, beſides vaſt numbers of the peaſantry. We have already quoted his remark, that in the year 1756, the total population of his territories amounted to four millions five hundred thouſand, and that, at the end of the war, they had been reduced to four millions. At his acceſſion to the crown, in 1740, the dominions which he inherited from his father contained, all together, only two millions two hundred and forty thouſand people*. Within a few years after the war of 1756, the population of his territories roſe to its former height, and at his death in 1786, they contained, including his acquiſition of Poliſh Pruſſia, more than ſix millions of people. The number of births and deaths is carefully regiſtered in the Pruſſian dominions; and, upon one of the late annual examinations, it was found that within the preceding year, the former outnumbered the latter, by more than fifty thouſand.

Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, and 50 new churches. They have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

We have extended this article to an uncommon length, for the ſake of inſerting much curious and authentic information, which has been omitted even in the laſt London edition of this work.

The manners, cuſtoms, and diverſions of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the Germans.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.] The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, though chiefly the former: but Roman catholics, antipœdo-baptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abound in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkably learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains two hundred and eighty pariſhes, and the latter one hundred and five.

Koningſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which, it has ſeven bridges, is about eighty-four miles from Dantzic. According to dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, contains three thouſand eight hundred houſes, and about 60,000 inhabitants. Koningſberg has a conſiderable ſhare of commerce and ſhipping, as the Pregel is navigable for ſhips, of which four hundred and ninety-three foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides, two hundred and ninety-eight coaſters. Three hundred and ſeventy-three floats of timber were, in the compaſs of that year, brought down that river. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains thirty-eight profeſſors, has magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericſburg, and is a regular ſquare.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Frederic the ſecond, endeavoured to increaſe the commerce of his kingdom; but the deſpotic nature of his government was not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Pruſſian manufactures,

* Frederic himſelf states them at three millions; but his English translator adds in a note, that they extended only to the number ſpecified in the text. We may obſerve, once for all, that the king ſometimes contradicts himſelf in details of this ſort. For ſuch inaccuracies, his extreme candour forms an ample apology. His attention was engroſſed by duties more important, or at leaſt more intereſting, than thoſe of an hiſtorian.

however, are not inconſiderable: they conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen, ſilk ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export a variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed and hempſeed, oatmeal, fiſh, mead, tallow and caviar; and it is ſaid that five hundred ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities, chiefly from Koningſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The king of Pruſſia is abſolute. The principal miniſters of the kingdom are; 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4 The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and ſeventeen bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; 3. Of deputies from the commons.

REVENUES.] Frederic the ſecond, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own ſkilful political regulations, derived an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of poverty and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brought him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues aroſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known, though we may conclude that it was very conſiderable. His revenues, after the acquiſition of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, muſt have been greatly increaſed. Excluſive of its fertility, commerce and population, its local ſituation was of vaſt importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia. By this addition his dominions became compact, and Pruſſian troops may now march from Berlin to Koningſberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Pruſſian army, even in time of peace, conſiſts of about 180,000 of the beſt diciplined troops in the world; and, during the war of 1778, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is inconſiſtent with the intereſt of the people. The army is chiefly compoſed of provincial regiments; the whole Pruſſian dominions being devided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the ſize and population of the diviſion, have been originally raiſed, and, from it, the recruits continue to be taken. Each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice, except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice, whenever they are called upon. But the maintenance of ſo large an army, in a country naturally ſo little equal to it, has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſuch a reduction of the number of labourers, that Frederic the ſecond endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as poſſible from other countries. Theſe foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Pruſſians have, every year, ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or employ themſelves in any other way that they pleaſe.

HISTORY] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people; they were deſcended from the Sclavonians, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Chriſtianity, wanted to reduce them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. they defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and Pagans, till the time of the Cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their con-

verſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vaſt waſte of blood, a peace was, in 1466, concluded between the knight of the Teutonic order and Caſimir IV. kind of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people, by which it was agreed, that the part, now called Poliſh Pruſſia, ſhould continue a free province under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Bandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, ſince called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia, but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and, upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted for almoſt three hundred years. In 1657, the elector, Frederic-William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and, by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion has been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, and proclaimed, January 18, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of the firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed ſervices to his country, but too often at the expenſe of humanity. At his death in 1740, he left eight millions and ſeven hundred thouſand crowns in his treaſury. His ſon improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related, in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1743, he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling, in future, ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was due ſolely to the divinity. In 1782, he expended almoſt two millions of crowns in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of policy and benevolence.

Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, and married in 1733, to Elizabeth-Chriſtina of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, born in 1714, by whom he had no iſſue. He died Auguſt 17, 1786, aged ſeventy-four, having reigned forty-ſix years, two months, ſeventeen days, and was ſucceeded by Frederic-William his nephew, and ſon of his brother William Auguſtus. His conduct as to Holland, has been related in the hiſtory of that country. He was born in 1744, and married, in 1765, to the princeſs Elizabetha Chriſtina Ulrica, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel: and, ſecondly in 1769, to Frederica Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt. Iſſue by the firſt a princeſs; by the ſecond, Frederic-William, prince royal, and ſeveral other children. Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, his ſiſter, was, in 1767, married to the prince of Orange.

The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 478	between	48 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 322		87 and 94 weſt longitude, from Philadelphia.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the ſouth; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the weſt; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and 3. Moravia.

Diviſions.	Chief towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Prague, W. lon. 89-20. N. lat. 50 Koningſgratz, E. Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. Egra, W.	Length 162 Breadth 142	12,060
2. Sileſia, eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.	Breſlaw, W. long. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Croſſen, N. Jagendorff, S. Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Length 196 Breadth 92	10,250
3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Olmutz, W. lon. 91-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.	Length 120 Breadth 88	5,424

Soil and air.] The air of Bohemia Proper, is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are much the ſame.

Mountains and rivers.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction; its woods are numerous. The chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

Metals and minerals.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulpher, and ſaltpetre.

Population, inhabitants, manners, customs, and diverſions.] We have no certain account of the preſent population of Bohemia; about one hundred and fifty years ago, it was computed to contain near three millions of inhabitants; but they are thought at preſent not to exceed two millions one hundred thouſand. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. But the late emperor generouſly diſcharged the Bohemian peaſants, on the imperial demeſnes, from the ſtate of vaſſalage in which they had been ſo long, and ſo unjuſtly retained; and it will be happy if his example ſhould be followed by the Bohemian nobility. Although the Bohemians, at preſent,

are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as intrepid aſſertors of civil and religious liberty; witneſs the many defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit; though it is certain that their internal jealouſies and diſſentions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though the Roman Catholic religion is eſtabliſhed in Bohemia, yet there are many proteſtants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion; and ſome of the Moravians have embraced a ſyſtem of proteſtaniſm, which they have propagated, by their zealous miſſionaries, in ſeveral parts of the globe.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhopric. The biſhoprics are Koningſgratz, Breſlaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian; but they generally ſpeak German.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, could never completely inveſt it. The inhabitants ſcarcely exceed ſeventy thouſand Chriſtians, and about thirteen thouſand Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade; and therefore, the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz, the capital of Moravia, is well fortified. Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, hath been already deſcribed.

MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures are of woollens, linens, copper, iron, paper, glaſs, and gun-powder.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; for the government, under the houſe of Auſtria, is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of the towns. Their ſovereigns, of late, have been averſe to provoking them by ill uſage, as they have a general diſlike to the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and its kings have been, for many years, elected emperors of Germany.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia is whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that crown themſelves. In the year 1438, Albert, II. of Auſtria, received three crowns, viz. thoſe of Hungary, the empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia. The people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Ziſca, aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the imperial forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove them out of the kingdom.

The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves enabled the emperors to keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king, in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for ſubſiſtence. After a war of thirty years duration, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have, ſince that time, remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300 Breadth 200	between	92 and 98 eaſt longitude, from Philadelphia. 45 and 49 north latitude.	36,060.

BOUNDARIES.] HUNGARY formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries. That part of it which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, is bounded by Poland on the north; by Tranſylvania and Walachia, on the eaſt; by Sclavonia, on the ſouth; and by Auſtria and Moravia, on the weſt.

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE.	LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE.
Chief town.	Chief town.
Preſburg, ſituated on the Danube, E. lon. 92-30, N. lat. 48-20.	Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 94-20, N. lat. 47-40.

To which may be added Temeſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king. It has ſeveral times been under the dominion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion, it was, in 1778, incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary. The province of Temeſwar is ninety-four miles long, and ſixty-ſeven broad, containing about three thouſand eight hundred and fifty ſquare miles. It has been divided into four diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. long. 97-15, N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; but the northern parts are mountainous and barren, and the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt of a richer ſoil than that plain which extends three hundred miles from Preſburg to Belgrade. It produces corn, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buckwheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood. Corn ſells for one-ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſalutary of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which, on the north, divide Hungary from Poland, are the greateſt in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow ſome of the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only in gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, cryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and other parts of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed. Some of them, however, ſtill ſubſiſt.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe-coloured and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other animal and vegetable productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, and in particular thoſe of Tokay, are preferable to any other, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, Hungary was a very populous and powerful kingdom; and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might hereafter become ſo. Both Hungaries, at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a faſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them a military air. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms, beſides their fire-arms, are a broad-ſword, and a kind of pole ax. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs, with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with ſmall gold, pearl, or diamond buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call mine-towns, wear fur and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns, upon the roads, are miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants, and the poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, are predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of

which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. They are in general a brave but ignorant people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were jealous of their liberties, and rather than be tyranniſed over by the houſe of Auſtria, they have often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar are computed at four hundred and fifty thouſand. There are in this country, many faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians, whom they are ſaid to reſemble in their features, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms. It is aſſerted that the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, is ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman Catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants, or Greeks. They now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects. The better ſort ſpeak German, and many, even of the common people, ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities, if they may be properly ſo called, of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits. The Lutherans and Calviniſts, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to have been the moſt magnificent in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze. The aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad. Its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has yet been diſcovered. As far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms and the breadth twenty-ſix. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an object of great curioſity. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary. Somes of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Theſe are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. They were lately removed to Vienna, by the emperor Joſeph the ſecond, in the meridian inſolence of his deſpotiſm. This capricious inſult excited indignation; and when his ill ſucceſs againſt the Turks had rendered him as contemptible, as he was hateful, he, on his death bed, reſtored them to their former place. The crown was ſent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylveſ-

ter II. to Stephen king of Hungary, and was made after the model of that of the Greek emperors. It is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three ſapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones, are the images of the apoſtles and patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of the apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications. The ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and even call their late ſovereign king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, and a Hungary office, which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring into the field, at any time, fifty thouſand Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above ten thouſand; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the Huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that ſome of the greateſt powers in Europe have troops which go by the ſame name. Their foot are called heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies whom they pretend to have killed. Both horſe and foot form an excellent militia, very good at purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant, in ſome cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country, than perhaps any other in Europe.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country, in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, in place of Pannonia. They were ſucceeded by the Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; and they by the Avari, who were, in the beginning of the ninth century, followed by the Sclavi. At the cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates. The firſt who aſſumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards ſeized by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Huniades, who was the guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, when they

invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke, Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the crown of Hungary, to which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution, its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

THESE countries are thrown under one division, because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The best account of them is as follows. Transylvania belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the north, by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east, by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west, by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between twenty-two and twenty-five degrees of east longitude, and forty-five and forty-eight of north latitude. Its length is extended about one hundred and eighty, and its breadth about one hundred and twenty miles; it contains nearly fourteen thousand four hundred square miles, and is surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but the wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a strong, a large, and well built city, as are Clausenburg and Weisseburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meet by summons, and receive the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late, they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which, long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring into the field, as has been asserted, thirty thousand troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. During the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric; and the Transylvanians, at present, seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman Catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced christianity

there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vaivoid, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, the natives are under an aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near sixteen thousand peasants assembled and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been resented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clausenburg; and afterwards offered to separate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. In the present situation of the Austrians, lenient terms have been granted to them, and with the punishment of a few, the insurrection is suppressed.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about two hundred miles in length, and sixty in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Kiria, in Austria, on the west. Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which, by degrees, forced the remains of the different nations whom they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought that the word *slave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure, unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Posega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Esseck is a large and strong town; remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad. It was built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin, are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a number of other people, whose names were unknown even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the wars of 1741 and 1756. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth, and contains about two thousand five hundred square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops,

and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Carolstadt is a place of some note. Zagrab is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty of the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing the Croats occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and Hungarian Dalmatia.

This last province lies in the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts. Segna is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the royal castle. Ottoschatz is a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers. But the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people, who being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a *deserter*. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their principal employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship, approach nearest to the Greek church. Some of them are Roman Catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as the Turks. It lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are, Tregonitz, Bucharest, and Severin.

SPAIN.*

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	700	between	10 and 3 east longitude.
Gr. breadth	500	between	36 and 44 north latitude.

Boundaries.] SPAIN is bounded by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean on the west; by the Mediteranean sea on the east; by the bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and by the streight of the sea at Gibraltar, on the south.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

* We have deferred the account of Poland and France, in order to gain time for more full information.

Spain.	Names of provinces.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
	Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID { N. lat. 40. 30. W. lon. 4. 15.
	Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville
	Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
	Arragon	13,818	190	105	Saragossa
	Estremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajos
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia
	Biscay and Ipuscoa	4760	140	55	Bisboa
	Asturia	4600	121	55	Oviedo
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampeluna
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
	Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella
	Total—	150,763			

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the names of Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior. The Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the larger part, comprehended all that lay south of that river.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but is excessively hot in the southern provinces, in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; though those towards the north and north-east, are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller shiver.

Such is the moisture of the hills bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, and to the south by snowy mountains, that no care is sufficient to preserve their fruits, their grain, and their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which infest the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity. Many persons live to the age of an hundred, some to an hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Gallicia, where, in the parish of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons, whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty seven. But in Villa de Fofinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1727, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately suffered much through their indolence; the causes of which, we shall hereafter explain. It produces, in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. Its wines, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, according

of mr. Townſend, the lateſt traveller, fourteen thouſand vine preſſes, chiefly employed in making the rich wine, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *mountain;* if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of *tent.* Good mountain wine is ſold, according to quality and age, from fifty-eight to ſeventy dollars the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thouſand veſſels enter the port of Malaga, every year, of which about one-tenth are Spaniſh; and the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fiſh, are computed at above ſixteen hundred thouſand dollars per annum; but there have been times when it has been conſiderably more.

Spain, indeed, offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country, perhaps, maintains a greater number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. Uſtariz, a modern Spaniſh writer, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain, to be forty thouſand; and has given us an intereſting detail of their economy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars, till lately, unknown to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are in themſelves a treaſure. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed, to the tops with trees, fruits and herbage. Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which render the taſte of their kids and ſheep exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murica abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to nearly a million of dollars a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The waters of Spain, eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal, are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. In Spain, the waters are found to have healing qualities, inferior to none in Europe.

Mountains.] It would be tedious to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous; the chief and the higheſt, are the Pyrenees, near two hundred miles in length, which extends from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France. The road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. Formerly it required the ſtrength of thirty men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen, to drag up a carriage, which four horſes now draw with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains, as they are called, are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. Mount Calpe, now called the rock of Gibraltar, was, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, ſtands oppoſite to it, in Africa.

Among the mountains in Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; as one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians *Monte Serrado*, or *Mount Scie*, words which ſignify a cut, or ſawed mountain; and is ſo called from its ſingular and extraordinary form; for it is ſo broken and divided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, that it ſeems, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a near approach, appears to be evidently the production of nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt view is, never to forſake it. When the mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile

of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain, and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs, about fourteen miles in circumference. Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at three thouſand three hundred feet. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come there, are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick are received into the hoſpital. Mr. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a particular deſcription of this mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia, and Murcia.

RIVERS, LAKES STRAITS, AND CURRENTS. } The Duero, formerly Durius, falls into the Atlantic ocean, below Oporto, in Portugal. The Tajo or Tagus, falls into the Atlantic ocean below Liſbon. The Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean, near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar. The Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean, near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it, from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happen to fall into it and reſt upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the ſame colour as its waters. No kind of verdure will grow where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but, in general, no animals will drink out of this river except goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivers run into it, and alter its nature: for, when it paſſes by Nielba, it is not different from others rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea ſix leagues lower down.

The ſtraits of Gibraltar are about twelve leagues in extent, from Cape Spartel to Ceuta Point, on the African coaſt; and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point, on the coaſt of Spain. At the weſtern entrance, they are in breadth about eight leagues. At Gibraltar and Ceuta, they are about leagues broad.

Philoſophers differ widely in accounting for the diſpoſition of that continual influx of waters, which, it is natural to ſuppoſe, would, without ſome conſumption or return, ſoon overflow the boundaries of the Mediterranean ſea. Dr. Halley was of opinion, that this perpetual ſupply of water from the Atlantic ocean was intended by nature to recruit what was daily exhaled in vapour: others imagine that the waters which roll in with the centre current, are returned, by two counter ſtreams, along the African and Spaniſh ſhores. That there are two counter ſtreams is without doubt; but their rapidity and breadth bear little proportion to the principal current. A third claſs ſuppoſe a counter current beneath, and of equal ſtrength with the upper ſtream; and this opinion appears confirmed, by a circumſtance related by col. James, of a Dutch ſhip ſunk in an action by a French privateer off Tarifa, which ſome time afterwards was caſt up near Tangier, four leagues to the *weſtward* of the place where ſhe diſappeared, and directly againſt the current. This hypotheſis receives alſo additional ſupport from the repeated diſappointments which have been experienced by many naval officers, in attempting to found the depth of the ſtraits with the longeſt lines; for the oppoſition between the currents, probably, carries the line in ſuch directions as to defeat the intention of the experiment.

These facts seem strongly to indicate a recurrency to the westward; which, though it may not be so rapid as the upper stream, yet, with the assistance of the currents along the Spanish and Barbary shores, and the necessary exhalations, may account for the Mediterranean sea never increasing by the constant supply received from the Atlantic ocean. The rapidity of the superior current renders the passage from the Mediterranean to the westward very precarious and uncertain, as ships can never stem the stream without a brisk easterly wind. Vessels, therefore, are often detained weeks, and sometimes months, waiting for a favourable breeze; in which case they find a comfortable birth in the bay of Gibraltar.

Bays.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca, and port Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

Metals and minerals.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety as any other country of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, alum, calamine, chrystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethists, are found here. The Spanish iron furnishes excellent arms; and, in former times, brought in a considerable revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here well understood. Even to this day, Spanish gun barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines. Since the discovery of the American mines, those in the mother country are no longer worked.

Animal productions by sea and land.] The horses of Andalusia are among the handsomest in Europe, and they are, at the same time, very fleet and serviceable. The king endeavours to monopolize the finest breeds for his own stables. Spain likewise furnishes mules and black cattle. The bull-feasts were formerly the most magnificent spectacle which the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey in Spain, which abounds with all the game and wild fowl, that are to be found in the neighbouring countries. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

This country is much infested with locusts. Mr Dillon observes, that, in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, while the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have, sometimes, appeared in the air, in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the finest summer day of Estremadura been rendered more dismal than the Winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn-field or a garden, at a considerable distance; and they ravage it almost in an instant Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

Mr. Townsend observes, that these insects commit the greatest devastations in the south of Spain, and that this proceeds not merely from the warmth of climate, but from the want of cultivation; because the females never deposit their eggs in cultivated land, but always in the deserts. For this reason, Galacia is little infested with the locust. Of the locust tribe, Linnæus reckons twenty species. Their jaw bones are strong and dented like a saw. Their head resembles that of a horse, and this similitude has been remarked among the whole genus. They are commonly seen only in the forests; but, when the season has been peculiarly favourable for propagation, these rapacious insects darken the air. Their assembled hosts fall upon rich pastures They rob the vines and olives of their foliage. They devour the corn. They enter the houses, and lay

waſte every thing before them. During four ſucceſſive years, from 1754, to 1757, incluſive, they ravaged the ſouthern provinces of Spain and Portugal.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.

Spain, formerly one of the moſt populous kingdoms in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. The preſent number of people has been computed by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to nine millions two hundred and fifty thouſand; ſo that England, in proportion to its extent, is three times more populous than Spain.

Many ſplendid accounts have, long ſince, been publiſhed, as to the wealth and population of this country, during the empire of the Moors, and even ſo late as the diſcovery of America. They have lately been given to the world, in all their luſtre, by lord Kaims, in his ingenious but inaccurate ſketches of the hiſtory of man, and by dr. Robertſon, in his pompous view of the progreſs of ſociety in Europe. That the ſituation of Spain was formerly ſuperior to what it has been, for the laſt two centuries, appears to be certain. But many writers on this ſubject, have been inclined to rodomontade; and all hiſtory has a portion of untruth. We can, therefore, ſafely conclude that very large deductions may be made from the incredible romances compoſed on this ſubject. Dr. Adam Smith, in his enquiry, which the reader, as to this point, may conſult with much ſatisfaction, relates an obſervation made by Charles the fifth, which entirely contradicts the magnificent ideas of the ſtate of Spain in the ſixteenth century. In travelling through France, this emperor remarked, that France had every thing, and Spain *wanted every thing*. The preſent remarkable deſolation of Spain, has been aſcribed to many inadequate cauſes. The emigrations to South-America, have always been held out as a reaſon for the diminution of the number of the people. But, among other inſtances, Britain has, during the ſame time, ſent out, or driven from her boſom, colonies at leaſt equally numerous, without feeling the loſs. The immenſe body of monks and nuns has likewiſe been aſſigned as a cauſe; but the ſame inſtitutions have not deſolated Italy, France, or Germany. The expulſion of the Moors affords a third ſource of depopulation; but this alſo is very unſatisfactory. France, in the civil wars of the ſixteenth century, and Ireland, in the laſt century, when deſolated by the banditti of the commonwealth of England, ſuffered a greater deſtruction of lives than has been aſcribed to Spain by the expulſion of the Moors; and yet both France and Ireland are at this day much more populous than before the maſſacres of the houſe of Guiſe and Cromwell, were ſucceſſively perpetrated. It is not, therefore, to the Roman catholic vow of celibacy, nor to American emigrations, nor to the expulſion of the Moors, that the depopulation of Spain muſt be attributed; ſince other countries, under circumſtances nearly ſimilar, have, inſtead of waſting augmented with rapidity. The horrid ſyſtem of oppreſſion exerted in raiſing taxes, has reduced Spain to its preſent comparative ſtate of inſignificance, poverty, and deſolation. The rapacity of the government has produced *a celibacy* infinitely more hoſtile to the multiplication of the ſpecies, than the vows of perſons deſtined for the convent or the church. Some idea of the unexampled havoc committed in collecting the revenues of Spain, may be formed from examining the ſketches of the hiſtory of man, to which we above alluded. "The preſent generation," ſays dr. Johnſon, "is ſufficiently diſpoſed to leave another behind it." The human race will always multiply, or at leaſt ſupport their numbers, unleſs when every dream of domeſtic happineſs has been, as it happened in Spain, blaſted by oppreſſion. The military ſyſtem adopted by the Spaniſh monarchs, coſt her, within an hundred years after the diſcovery of America, undoubtedly, a much greater waſte of population, than the three cauſes above ſtated put together. Dr. Smith remarks that Spain was overwhelmed with public debts, an hundred years before England owed a ſhilling. Now, even England, po-

pulous and wealthy as ſhe is, might have been twice as populous, and perhaps ten or fifty times as wealthy, but for her abominable wars, ſince the revolution, and their neceſſary conſequence, an abyſs of debts and taxes. But that ſyſtem which hitherto has only obſtructed the proſperity of England, had been carried, in Spain, to its utmoſt height, two hundred years ago; and its continuation ever ſince, ſuperadded to the ravages of an abſolute government, affords a melancholy, but ſatisfactory explanation of her preſent ſtate. England, as a political body, may be compared with a robuſt debauchee, at the age of thirty-ſix, or perhaps of fifty; while Spain, commencing her career of debts and taxes above an hundred years earlier, is on that account, more exhauſted and debilitated, and reſembles the ſituation of a man of pleaſure, at ſeventy or fourſcore.

The Spaniards are generally tall; their hair and complexion ſwarthy, but their countenances are expreſſive. The court of Madrid has, of late, been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachios, and to introduce among them the French dreſs inſtead of their black cloaks, ſhort jerkins, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords; and this laſt dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower claſs.

"Throughout the whole of Spain," ſays Mr. Townſend, "I cannot recollect to have ſeen a ſingle country reſidence, like thoſe which every where abound in England: the great nobility ſurround the ſovereign, and are attracted by the court; the nobles of inferior rank or fortune, are either aſſembled at Madrid, or eſtabliſh themſelves in the great cities of the diſtant provinces." This deſertion of the country, has ariſen, not as in other countries, from the oppreſſions of the great barons, and from the franchiſes enjoyed by cities, but from two other cauſes, more extenſive in their operations. The firſt of theſe was, the diſtracted condition of the empire till the reign of Ferdinand and Iſabella, divided into ſeparate kingdoms of ſmall extent, all engaged in never-ceaſing wars againſt each other, which drove men of property into cities; the ſecond, the jealouſy of the court, which ſoon followed the expulſion of the Moors; a jealouſy, which, for more than a century and a half, was merely political, leſt the grandees, ſupported by the people, ſhould endeavour to regain their conſequence. To this fear, at the acceſſion of the preſent family, ſucceeded one of a more alarming nature, from the attachment which many of the great families had diſcovered to the houſe of Auſtria. For this reaſon, they were aſſembled round the throne, and kept conſtantly in ſight.

By the beſt accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America, gave humane relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs, and fell into their hands. They ſupplied them with neceſſaries and money; and treated them in a hoſpitable manner while they remained amongſt them.

The character of the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, deſervedly ranks very high. In no country exiſts a higher ſenſe of national honour. The lower ranks are like thoſe of other countries. The kings of Spain, of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards, of great families, as their miniſters, and have been but indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Their miniſters have generally been Frenchmen, or Italians, whoſe counſels have been pernicious. Alberoni embroiled his maſter with nearly all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

Among the common people who live on the coaſts, are to be found an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh, and Engliſh. There are about 40,000 gypſies, who, beſides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, an author of merit, after his late travels through the country:—"The Catalans appear to be the moſt active, ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling,

and manufactures. The Valencians, a more ſullen, ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are, perhaps, the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation: The Old Caſtilians are laborious. and retain more of the ancient ſimplicity of manners; both are of a firm, determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more reſembling a colony of republicans than the province of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding, pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly-earned ſubſiſtence."

Spain produces fine women; yet beauty is far from forming the general character of Spaniſh ladies. In their perſons, they are are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ arts, common in ſome other countries, to ſupply the defects of nature. It is allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

The Spaniards have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and theſe, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, would render them ſuperior to moſt people. Their ſlow, deliberate manner of proceeding, both in council and war, has, of late years, worn off to ſuch a degree, that, during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as prompt, both in reſolving and executing, as their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, were always exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, the common people have, for ſome time, aſſiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

The temperance of the Spaniards in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed: their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate; tea being very ſeldom drank. They live much upon garlic, ſallad, and radiſhes. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are moſtly in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of the violent heat through the whole day, without ſome refreſhment; it is, therefore, almoſt the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after dinner, which, in thoſe countries, takes place early; and this time of repoſe laſts for two or three hours. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that one may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibions are inſipid and ludicrous. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap-door, above the level of the ſtate, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes, by their lovers, are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country and Portugal, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhowing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is abſurdly proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls that he has killed in theſe encounters.

Moſt towns in Spain have a ſquare for the exhibition of bull-feaſts. The inhabitants of the pooreſt villages will unite in the expence of buying a cow or an ox; and, for want of horſes, fight them riding upon aſs-back.

RELIGION.] The ardent zeal which formerly diſtinguiſhed the Spaniards above

the reſt of the Catholic world, has loſt much of its activity; and the power of the clergy and inquiſition, has, of late years, been much reduced. A royal edict has been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion; a regulation, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is ſaid, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy. The expulſion of the Jeſuits was an act of injuſtice executed with circumſtances of wanton barbarity. An hundred and fifty years ago, it might have coſt the monarch his crown; but in this age, it hardly produced even a murmur.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain, there are eight archbiſhoprics, and forty-ſix biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo, the primate of Spain, has a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum; but the Spaniſh court has, of late, adopted many ways of leſſening the emoluments of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. The ſee of Toledo pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions; and, it is aſſerted, that every biſhopric in Spain has ſome body quartered upon it. The ſecond-rate benefices, are believed to be in the ſame ſituation.

The archbiſhops, biſhops, and convents, from their ample revenues, give away immenſe ſums in what is abſurdly ſtiled *Charity*. "In traverſing the ſtreets of Seville, (ſays Mr. Townſend) I was ſtruck with the multitude of beggars clothed in rags; and was at firſt inclined to attribute this to the decay of trade; but, upon examination, I found a more abiding cauſe in the diſtribution of alms at the archbiſhop's palace, and at the gates of twenty convents, daily, and without diſtinction, to all who make application for relief. Such miſplaced benevolence is a bar to induſtry, and multiplies the objects of diſtreſs, whoſe numbers bear exact proportion to the proviſion made for their ſupport. This is the caſe, not in one, but in every place, where beggars abound; for, by the miſtaken benevolence of the biſhop, of the canons, and of the convents, in diſtributing alms to all who aſk, there is ſuch ample proviſion made for lazineſs, that every ſtreet ſwarms with vagabonds, not merely with thoſe who are proper objects of compaſſion, but with wretches, who, if compelled to work, would be found abundantly able to maintain themſelves. What incitement can there be here to induſtry? Hence it comes to paſs, that wherever theſe indiſcriminate charities abound, few traces of it are to be ſeen; whilſt filth and naſtineſs, immorality and vice, wretchedneſs and poverty, the inevitable conſequences of undiſtinguiſhing benevolence, prevail. How evident is it from hence, that he who finds employment for the poor is their greateſt friend; whilſt he who indiſcriminately feeds them, ſhould be ranked amongſt their enemies?"

LANGUAGE.] The baſis of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is the Latin; and it might be called a dialect of Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a majeſtic and expreſſive language, and by a perſon acquainted with the Latin, may be acquired in a few weeks. While the Italian, and ſtill more the French tongue, is in a ſtate of inceſſant fluctuation, the Spaniſh, correſpondent with the grave and ſteady character of the nation that ſpeaks it, has retained its purity for upwards of two hundred years. The Spaniſh Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro que eſtas en il cielo, ſanctificado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe ... voluntad, aſſi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos le ... y perdona nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores ... nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; ... potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Antiquity was indebted to Spain for ſeveral valuable writers, and, in particular, for ... celebrated poets, Seneca, Martial, and

Lucan. As a moral philoſopher, Seneca is univerſally known. As a poet, ten Latin tragedies bear his name. They have been much and undeſervedly neglected*. Objections have been made, and ſometimes with reaſon, to the conduct of his plots; but his choruſſes alone are worth whole libraries of the ordinary productions of the dramatic muſe. They frequently expreſs the moſt philoſophical and profound ideas, adorned with the moſt ſplendid felicity of poetical expreſſion. Nor is he incapable of the pathetic; of which the lamentation on the death of Hercules affords, among other paſſages, a memorable evidence. Yet a croud of taſteleſs critics have inſulted the literary world, by an indiſcriminate cenſure of this poet. It is, however, an object of doubt, with ſome learned men, whether theſe tragedies are all the work of Seneca, or if he was the ſame perſon with the famous moraliſt. Lucan is much better known. Martial wrote, beſides other ſhort poems, fourteen books of epigrams; but the two laſt of theſe are evidently ſpurious, for they bear not the ſmalleſt trace of his well-known features. This obſervation is hazarded from an intimate acquaintance with the writings of this amiable poet. Martial deſerves, in the higheſt ſenſe of the word, the title of a *Claſſic*. Though he ſpent thirty-four years of his life in Rome, and was in habits of friendſhip with Juvenal, Quintilian, Pliny the younger, and a croud of other eminent characters, the pedants of modern ages pretend to have diſcovered in his ſtyle, marks of Spaniſh barbariſm; an accuſation which may be ranked as the climax of cenſorial impertinence. He is diſtinguiſhed by a ſtrong vein of common ſenſe, by genuine good humour, and by a perſpicuity and completeneſs of expreſſion, which Horace often fails to attain. The title of his epigrams has miſled many perſons, and among others, the learned and intelligent mr. Hume, to imagine, that he was a mere punſter, and that his verſes contained nothing better than a play upon words. In Greece and Rome, the title of *Epigram* was given to many kinds of ſhort poems; and a great part of thoſe of Martial have not the moſt diſtant reſemblance to punning. He has left behind, many very beautiful leſſons of morality. His addreſſes to his wife Marcella, to Quintilian, and to many others of his friends of both ſexes, are maſter-pieces of elegant compoſition. We have been more copious on the characters of Seneca and of Martial, becauſe they are very generally miſrepreſented and miſunderſtood.

In modern ages, "the greateſt impediment to the progreſs of literature in Spain, is the deſpotic nature of its government. Learning owes ſomething to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and to cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. The inimitable Cervantes, born at Madrid, in 1549, enliſted in a ſtation, little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier; and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. He was long a priſoner and a ſlave, in Barbary. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his countrymen, by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his memory. He was in priſon for debt when he compoſed the firſt part of this hiſtory, and is to be placed at the head of Spaniſh authors.

The viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatirical pieces, are tranſlated into the Engliſh language, and have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling equally in verſe and in proſe. He was ſkilled in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His works have appeared in three quarto volumes, two of which conſiſt of poetry, and the third, of pieces in proſe. As a poet, he excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle.

* Of this work, there is a beautiful edition, by far the most elegant that we have any where seen, in the public library at Philadelphia.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had ſettled themſelves in that country, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental ſtyle of poetry very general prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards and addicted themſelves much to Roman literature: But Alvaro, of Cordova, complains, that in his time, they had ſo totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even amongſt a thouſand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter. The inhabitants of Spain could then write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compoſe verſes in that language, with fluency and elegance. The Spaniſh Jews made a figure in literature, which was promoted by teachers from Babylon, where they had academies ſupported by themſelves. In the year 967, Rabbi Moſes, and his ſon Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were ſold as ſlaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who eſtabliſhed a ſchool in that city, of which Rabbi Moſes was appointed the head. He was deſirous of returning to his own country; but the Mooriſh king of Cordova would not give his conſent, ſatisfied that his Hebrew ſubjects had maſters of their own religion at home, without being under the neceſſity of receiving them from a foreign univerſity; and every indulgence was granted them with reſpect to their worſhip. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college, over which he had preſided, was transferred to Cordova, which produced a number of Hebrew poets, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spaniſh Jews had alſo flouriſhing ſchools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo; and from hence aroſe the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of ſpeech, which have crept into the Caſtilian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology. To theſe Jews the Spaniſh language is indebted, for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, which was afterwards printed at Ferarra, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spaniſh letter.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as early as the twelfth or thirteenth century, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work, the *Arte de la Gaya Sciencia*, which comprehends a ſyſtem of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, beſides deſcribing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions. He was alſo the author of a Spaniſh tranſlation of the Æneid. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was likewiſe, in his own time, celebrated as a poet: His works have paſſed through a variety of editions, the firſt of which was printed at Saragoſſa, in 1515. Juan de la Encina was alſo a poet of conſiderable merit: He tranſlated ſome of the Latin poems into Spaniſh, and publiſhed an eſſay on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragoſſa, in 1516. Boſcan, Villegas, and other Spaniſh poets, alſo obtained great reputation in their own country. Mr. Hayley, in the notes to his third epiſtle on epic poetry, has obliged the world with ſome curious anecdotes of Lopez de Vega. He was born on the 25th of November, 1562. He ſerved on board the Invincible Armada, in which he loſt a brother in an engagement with ſome Dutch ſhips. He died on the 25th of Auguſt, 1635, in the 73d year of his age. It would be difficult to name any poet, ancient or modern, who, while living, was ſo univerſally idolized by all ranks of people, and ſo magnificently rewarded by the great. Buchanan excepted, no modern author has perhaps been ſo much diſtinguiſhed by the multitude of his poetical panegyriſts. A volume of verſes in his praiſe, the joint production of above an hundred and fifty writers, was publiſhed ſoon after his death. He declared, that he conſtantly wrote five ſheets a day. Hence his biographers compute, that he muſt have compoſed twenty-one millions three hundred and ſixteen thouſand verſes. An elegant edition of his poems has lately been printed in Spain. They extend to nineteen quarto volumes. "His dramatic works," ſays mr. Hayley, "are to be added to this collection, and will probably be ſtill more

voluminous." That the reader may form an idea of the prodigious bulk of his writtings, we may obſerve, that Pope's tranſlation of the Iliad and Odyſſey extends only to about thirty-ſix thouſand verſes. If we compute the whole remaining works of Homer, including his hymns, at forty thouſand lines, and thoſe of Lopez de Vega at twenty millions, the Spaniſh bard is five hundred times more voluminous than the Greek.—To Lopez de Vega we may apply what Quintilian ſays of Steſichorus: "He is redundant, and diffuſive, which, though it is to be cenſured, is yet the fault of a powerful mind."—He was an amiable man, and liberal in the praiſe of Ercilla, Camoens, and his cotemporary poets. It is, however, a remarkable circumſtance, that he is hardly, if at all known, except in his native language.

Alonzo de Ercilla is another celebrated poet of Spain. He was born at Madrid, on the 7th of Auguſt, 1533; and, in 1554, embarked, as a ſoldier of fortune, for Chili. He was in active ſervice in that country for about eight years, and on his return to Europe, formed the plan of an epic poem, entitled *La Araucana*, which will tranſmit his name with reputation to diſtant poſterity. He publiſhed the firſt complete edition of this performance in 1590. It conſiſts of thirty-ſeven cantos. It is irregular in the plan, and unequal in the execution; but it has been admired and celebrated, as a work of uncommon excellence, by many Spaniſh critics, and among others, by the illuſtrious author of Don Quixote. Like almoſt every man of ſuperior poetical talents, Ercilla was a perſon of uncommon modeſty. It is ſaid that once in addreſſing his ſovereign, Philip the ſecond, his voice failed. "Don Alonzo," replied the king, "Speak to me in writing." He did ſo, and obtained his requeſt. He had acted as a page to Philip, when infant of Spain; and experienced from that unfeeling tyrant, the neglect and abandonment which men of talents have met with in all ages from the great. Like Cervantes, he died in obſcurity, and perhaps, like him, in want. The poem, like the Iliad and Æneid, is chiefly exceptionable in a moral point of view, as repreſenting the countrymen of the author to be the favourites of heaven, and conſequently entitled to exterminate their antagoniſts. The ſecond great objection is, that it contains an improper mixture of hiſtory and fable. By attempting to combine the almoſt incompatible characters of a poet and an hiſtorian, Ercilla partly fails in both. But after all, his *Araucana* demonſtrates the uncommon abilities of its author, by many pathetic narratives, many ſtriking deſcriptions, and many noble and generous ſentiments. The time of the death of this author is unknown.

Herrera has diſplayed great abilities, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by his countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay ingenuity, extenſive reading, and liberality of ſentiment. Many of them have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo.

Some Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts. The cities and palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects: Palomina, in a treatiſe on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, have inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain, from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the end of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velaſques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke, Ribeira, and Glaudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

Universities.] In Spain are twenty-four univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains twenty-one colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Many of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The others are, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Sa-

ragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of one hundred and fifty-nine arches. It reaches about one hundred and forty yards; and, where it croſſes the valley, it is ſomething more than ninety-four feet high. Its ſolidity, which has braved upwards of ſixteen centuries, ſeems inexplicable, on cloſely obſerving the ſimplicity of its conſtruction. It is compoſed of ſquare ſtones, placed one upon another, without any exterior appearance of cement, though, as they are cut and placed with peculiar art, we cannot now be certain whether they were really united without this aid, or whether the cement his been deſtroyed by time. Other Roman aqueducts and theatres are to be found at Terrago, and in other parts of Spain. Near Salamanca are the remains of a Roman highway, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church. It is ſix hundred feet in length, five hundred in breadth, and of a proportionable height. The roof is amazingly bold and lofty, and is ſupported by three hundred and fifty pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are three hundred and ſixty-ſix altars, and twenty four gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted one thouſand nine hundred and eighty-five years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned, and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Morviedro, formerly Saguntum, are the ruins of a Roman theatre. It is an exact ſemicircle, about eighty-two yards diameter. Some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and nine thouſand perſons might, without inconvenience, attend the exhibitions.

The Mooriſh antiquities are magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Granada, and of the moſt entire and ſplendid buildings, erected by the Moors in Spain. It was built, in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone; the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jaſper; on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones, of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and cielings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floors, and cielings of which, are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Granada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery

of that city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities are the medicinal ſprings. The river Guadiana, like the mole in England, runs under ground, and afterwards emerges. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory at Madrid was opened to the public by the king's orders in 1775. This collection is arranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhown privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to improve, ſhould care be taken to get the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. The cabinet contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain is the cave of St. Michael, eleven hundred and ten feet above the level of the earth. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the town of St. Roque and Algeſiras, and the Alpuxarra mountains, mount Abyla on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

Chief cities.] Madrid is the capital of Spain, and contains about three hundred thouſand inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhow, convenience being little conſidered: thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end, where the family ſit. The houſes in general have more the appearance of priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beſides having a balconi, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburg. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, nor coffee-houſe, nor newſpaper, except the Madrid Gazette, is to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is four hundred and ſeventy feet in length, and one hundred high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence. The great audience-chamber is one hundred and twenty feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet, richly embroidered with gold. It is ornamented alſo with twelve looking-glaſſes, made at St. Ildefonſo, each ten feet high, with twelve tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marble. The other royal palaces are deſigned for hunting-ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues.

The palace of Aranjuez and its gardens are ſaid to be extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt, and between each double row, there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds,

and thouſands of deer and wild boars wander at large, with numberleſs hares, and rabbits, beſides pheaſants, partridges, and other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through the place. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is adorned with fountains and ſtatues; it alſo contains a variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaſtered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. The gardens are on a declivity, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, which ſupplies the fountains. The water-works are excellent. The great entry of the palace, is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and has a large iron palliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains. The baſons are of white marble; and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the French ſtyle, and ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues, as large as life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaden vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo relievos. The money expended in this palace and gardens, was immenſe; but when we conſider, ſays mr. Townſend, that the whole of the garden was a barren rock, that the very ſoil was brought from a great diſtance, and that water is conveyed to every tree; when we reflect upon the quantity of lead uſed for the images, and of caſt-iron for the pipes, with the expenſe of workmanſhip for both, together with all the other elegancies, correſponding to ſuch an undertaking, we ſhall not wonder to hear, that this place coſt forty-five millions of piaſtres, or, nearly thirty millions of dollars.

The Eſcurial, however, is the boaſt of Spain; and the natives ſay, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace, forms a quarto volume; and it is reported, that its founder, Philip II. expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows; 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366. The apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts, with which it is enriched. Above the ſhelves, are paintings *al freſco* by Barthelemi Carducho; the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred or profane hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences, of which the ſhelves below preſent to us the elements. Thus the council of Nice is repreſented above the books which treats of theology; the death of Archimedes, at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circumſtance in this library is, that, on viewing the books, the reader will find them placed the contrary way, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reaſons for this cuſtom are, that Arias Montanus, a Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library had ſerved as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books placed and inſcribed in that manner, which, no doubt, appeared to him to be the moſt commodious method of arranging them; and that he introduced his own method into the Eſcurial, which, ſince his time, for the ſake of uniformity, has been followed with reſpect to the books afterwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, adorned with fountains and coſtly ornaments. Two hundred fathers live in the convent, who have an annual revenue of twelve thouſand pounds. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the

plan of that temple at Rome, as the church, to which it belongs, is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is thirty-six feet in diameter, incrusted with fine marbles.

Philip II. erected this palace to commemorate the victory which he obtained over the French, at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, is a long square of six hundred and forty feet by five hundred and eighty. The height to the roof is sixty feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures; some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable *tout ensemble*. The pictures and statues, which have found admission there, are excellent in their kind, and some of them can scarcely be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, that joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay, is about five hundred fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the Puntals. The entrance has never been, of late years, attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest that their merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill-paved, dirty, and full of rats in the night. The houses are lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population is estimated at one hundred and forty thousand inhabitants, of whom twelve thousand are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already fifty years in building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are exceedingly beautiful.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; the streets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishops are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost nearly four thousand dollars each. The revenue of the see amounts to three thousand five hundred pounds per ann.; but as the bishops cannot devise by will, the property of which they die possessed, goes to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but has greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls appear of Mooriſh construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana is large, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the accursed inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to sixteen thousand looms, are now reduced to four hundred, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-minster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom, was set up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the presence of king Henry III. The prospect of the country, round this city, beheld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Bareas, is a large trading city, containing fifteen thousand houses, situated on the Mediterranean, opposite Minorca, and said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege which they sustained in 1714, against a formidable

army, when deſerted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly one hundred and fifty thouſand, who ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing and arms for the troops.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houſes ill-built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs, abound in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at eighty thouſand. Its archbiſhopric is one of the richeſt in Spain, the revenues amounting to nearly two hundred thouſand dollars a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has few good ſtreets, or remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare, ſouth-weſt of the town, with forty pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were eight hundred Spaniſh criminals, and ſix hundred Barbary ſlaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. who were treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there, deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhments.

Granada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Dauro and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of fifty thouſand inhabitants, only eighteen thouſand are employed in labour; the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull-feaſts, is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain. The environs of the city are pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level. The water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the cleaneſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes, which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The biſhop's income is nearly eighty thouſand dollars.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is rich and populous. There are ten gates to this city; and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of the city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade at the top. The lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, extending two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city,

and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, which is yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands who remain, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword-blades and ſilk ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the ſtreets very ſteep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but is now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures of the Gothic kind in Europe.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is, at preſent, in poſſeſſion of Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place about the year 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival, a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel Tarif*, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former, by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of ſir George Rooke, in 1704; and this chiefly owing to accident. The prince of Heſſe, with eighteen hundred men, landed on the iſthmus; but an attack, on that ſide, was found to be impracticable on account of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired fifteen thouſand ſhot, without making any impreſſion on the works, ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats, and as they ſaw that the garriſon, who conſiſted only of one hundred men, did not perceive them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the Mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being obſerved from the fleet, more boats and ſailors were ſent out, who likewiſe aſcended the works, got poſſeſſion of a battery, and ſoon obliged the town to ſurrender. After many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated endeavours have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs. The laſt war has made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon. It muſt be granted, that the place is, by nature, almoſt impregnable. Near three hundred pieces of cannon, of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, and the price of them diſtributed among the garriſon. It has a commodious port, formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. A current ſets through the Straits from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the bombs of the enemy; but, on account of its fortifications, it is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide, only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this iſthmus, the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from

having any intercourſe with the country behind them: notwithſtanding which, they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco. The garriſon is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica. Minorca was taken by the Engliſh, under general Stanhope, in 1708, and confirmed to Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but it was retaken by the Spaniards in the laſt war, on February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, ſigned at Paris, September 3, 1783. It contains about twenty-ſeven thouſand inhabitants.

The inferior order of Spaniards, even in the greateſt cities, are miſerably lodged. Many of the poorer ſort, both men and women, wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings; and coarſe bread ſteeped in oil, and occaſionally ſeaſoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through ſeveral provinces. In Spain, a traveller muſt carry proviſions and bedding with him, and if by chance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he muſt even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform theſe offices for ſtrangers; but lately ſome tolerable inns have been opened by Iriſh and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The indolence and lazineſs of many of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their induſtrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a contraſt diſtinguiſhes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard ſeldom ſtirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He ſleeps, goes to maſs, or takes his evening walk, while the induſtrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domeſtic; he is butcher, cook, and tailor, all in the ſame family.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards make gold and ſilver the chief branches of their exports and imports. They import them from America, and then export them to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. Hither other European nations ſend their merchandiſe, to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered under the names of Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents, and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtore-houſes and magazines for commerce, of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandiſes imported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yield a great revenue, were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties.

At St. Ildefonſo the glaſs manufacture is carried on to a great degree of perfection. The largeſt mirrors are made in a braſs frame, one hundred and ſixty-two inches long, ninety-three wide, and ſix deep, weighing near nine tons. Theſe are deſigned wholly for the royal palaces, and for preſents from the king. Yet even for ſuch purpoſes it is ill placed, in a country where proviſions are dear, fuel ſcarce, and carriage exceedingly expenſive. Here is alſo a royal manufacture of linen, employing about fifteen looms; by which, as it is ſaid, the king is a conſiderable loſer.

In the city of Valencia, there is a very reſpectable ſilk manufacture, in which five thouſand looms, and three hundred ſtocking-frames, give employment to upwards of twenty thouſand of the inhabitants, without enumerating perſons who prepare the wood and iron-work of ſo great a number of machines, or ſpin, wind, or dye the ſilk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been ſucceſsfully eſtabliſhed; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, the beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and are remarkable for neat-

neſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are ſtronger and much more beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena, they make great quantities of the *eſparto* ropes and cables, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with ſingular rapidity. Theſe cables are excellent, becauſe they float on the ſurface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain, for the uſe of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne obſerves, that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock yards and magazines in Europe. Another cuſtom in rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this ſtate the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break, after being uſed but a ſhort ſpace of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at preſent they are able to do without the aſſiſtance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Granada already furniſhes them with the greateſt part of the hemp that they uſe, and in caſe of need, they may have recourſe to Arragon and Navarre. All the ſail-cloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spaniſh hemp; the texture of which is even, cloſe, and ſolid.

One of the moſt important productions of this country, and the moſt valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a ſpecies of pot-aſh, procured by burning a great variety of plants almoſt peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia. It is uſed for making ſoap, for bleaching, and for glaſs. All the nations in Europe, by the combuſtion of various vegetable ſubſtances, make ſome kind of pot-aſh; but the ſuperior excellence of the barilla has hitherto ſecured the preference. The country producing it, is about ſixty leagues in length and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain, is about a hundred and fifty quintals, moſt of which is ſent to France and England, and a ſmall quantity to Genoa and Venice.

Spain is one of the richeſt countries in Europe in ſaltpetre, a moſt important article of commerce. The account of this ſurpriſing manufacture we ſhall abridge from mr. Townſend. "I obſerved, ſaid he, a large incloſure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, at regular diſtances from each other. Theſe were collected from the rubbiſh of the city of Madrid, and the ſcrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and ſpreading abroad the earth to the thickneſs of about one foot, whilſt others were turning what had been previouſly expoſed to the influence of the ſun and air. The preceding ſummers theſe heaps had been waſhed, and being thus expoſed, would yield the ſame quantity of ſalt again, and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but after having been waſhed, no ſaltpetre can be obtained without a ſubſequent expoſure." Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, ſome they have waſhed twenty times in the laſt ſeven years, and ſome they have ſubjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may waſh it to advantage, and by their taſte, if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper ſtrength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtained the ſaltpetre.

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandiſe. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, who carry on this contraband trade, are greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than twenty per cent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country, is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is herditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes of Spain are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernable in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy-council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galacia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem apart, and is delegated to viceroys and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; and their emoluments are ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the king from old Spain, yearly, amount to five millions of pounds ſterling; ſome writers ſay, eight. His American income is immenſe, but it is generally embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He deviſes means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid, with intereſt.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much dependent on emergencies, that they cannot be accurately aſcertained. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of Spain, in time of peace, are about ſeventy thouſand; but in war they have amounted to one hundred and ten thouſand. The late king was at great expenſe to raiſe a powerful marine; and the Spaniſh fleet, in Europe and America, at preſent exceeds ſeventy ſhips of the line. Along the coaſts of Spain are watch-towers, at a mile's diſtance from each other, with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

ROYAL TITLES.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, the whole of which, with ſeveral others, were by name entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted to about thirty-two. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued; but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majeſty. He is inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword, without being crowned. The ſignature never mentions his name, but, I THE KING. His eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and his younger children, of both ſexes, are, by way of diſtinction, called infants, or infantas, that is, children.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably firſt peopled by the Celtæ, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe republics; but at laſt the arms of the Romans prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this country among them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became maſters. Theſe were in their turn invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Perſian, Macedonian, and Roman empires, croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in its ſouthern provinces.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe barbarians, who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania. He aſſumed the title of king of Aſturia, about the year 720. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe; and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were, for many ages, perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept poſſeſſion of the throne nearly 300 years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars continued, which at laſt overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdaulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts which he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at laſt divided into twelve or fourteen kingdoms. About the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon Alphonſo threw off the dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſucceſſion of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, until about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella the heireſs, and afterwards queen of Caſtile. They took Granada, and in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, the Moors and Jews, who would not become converts to the Chriſtian faith, were, to the number of one hundred and ſeventy thouſand families, driven out of Spain.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in part depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers. To complete her misfortunes Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the inquiſition, that utmoſt inſtance of human depravity, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded, in the year 1516, to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of

Ferdinand and Iſabella. He was a perfidious and unfeeling tyrant. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in wars with other princes, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to compel within the pale of the catholic church He conſigned to the executioner, from fifty to a hundred thouſand of his proteſtant ſubjects in the Netherlands; and it is ſomewhat ſtrange, that Robertſon, in his copious hiſtory of this emperor, omits all mention of this dreadful butchery. He reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he retired from any concern in public affairs, that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude.

He reſigned Spain and the Netherlands to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor. They conferred the imperial crown upon Ferdinand, brother to Charles; thereby, wiſely dividing the very dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches. Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World. alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch; whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, who ſtill poſſeſs them.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, and hardly any of his virtues. He was auſtere, haughty, exorbitantly ambitious, and, through his whole life, a cruel bigot. He is, upon the whole, probably, the moſt deteſtable of modern monarchs. His gloomy character was not irradiated by a ſingle ſpark of virtue, or benevolence; nor, perhaps, is the black narrative of his crimes interrupted by a ſingle act of generoſity. His marriage with queen Mary of England, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment, his unfortunate wars with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after having been governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a conſiderable army, in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and, in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his dominions, though the Braganza family, of Portugal, aſſerted a prior right. By this acquiſition, Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds. For ſome time before his death, Philip had become, by a moſt loathſome diſeaſe, an object of pity, and of horror.

The deſcendants of this monarch were very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that, in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne. Portugal has, ever ſince, been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predeceſſor's will, by the title of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. Thus Lewis XIV. accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his

own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and ſecured that kingdom for his ſon Carlos; the Sicilians, through the oppreſſion of the Imperialiſts, readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of Elizabeth of Parma, his wife, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. a mild and pacific prince, who reformed many abuſes, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother Charles III. then king of Naples and the two Sicilies, late king of Spain, and ſon to Philip V. by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

Shortly after his acceſſion, war being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba; but the conqueſt was extremely ill conducted, and obtained at a prodigious expenſe of lives.

In conſequence of a peace, the Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1765, an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers, by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of twenty-four thouſand, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beated back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having twenty-ſeven officers killed, and one hundred and ninety-one wounded; and five hundred rank and file killed, and above two thouſand wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they renewed their attacks againſt Algiers by ſea; but, after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire, without doing that place much injury.

When the war between Britain and America had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Britain. The Spaniards, in 1779, abſurdly began their firſt operations, by cloſely beſieging Gibraltar, both by ſea and land. The ſiege was continued throughout the war, with occaſional fierce attacks on both ſides, though what the garriſon had chiefly to dread, was famine; and ſo ſoon did this begin to make its appearance, that, about the middle of January, 1780, not only bread, but every article neceſſary to the ſupport of life, was difficult to be procured, and only at exorbitant prices. Captain Drinkwater, in his hiſtory of this ſiege, informs us, that veal, mutton, and beef, ſold from two ſhillings and ſix-pence, to four ſhillings ſterling per pound; freſh pork, from two to three ſhillings; ſalt beef and pork, one ſhilling and three-pence per pound; fowls, eighteen ſhillings per couple; ducks, a guinea; and other articles in proportion. And though the troops were frequently relieved, yet the ſame difficulties very frequently returned. However, the garriſon ſtill held out; and though the Spaniſh army and train of artillery continued daily to increaſe, the utmoſt efforts of their power were inſufficient to make impreſſion on this impregnable fortreſs. So little regard, indeed, was paid to the formidable preparations of the Spaniards, that, even from the beginning of the ſiege, it had been cuſtomary with general Elliot, the governor, to allow them to bring their works to perfection, and then to demoliſh them. The more frequently the beſiegers were diſappointed, the more eager they ſeemed for the accompliſhment of their point. The moſt prodigious number of cannon, mortars, and all other deſtructive engines of that kind, that perhaps ever were aſſembled in any one enterpriſe, were now brought before a ſingle fortreſs, with little or no effect. By the violence of their fire, indeed, the houſes were reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants were obliged to remove to England; but the fortifications were ſcarcely ever damaged in the leaſt. The ſoldiers were ſo much accuſtomed to ſhells falling and burſting near them, that they became, in a manner, inſenſible of danger; and their officers were frequently obliged to call to

them to avoid them, when juſt ready to burſt at their feet. The hiſtorian gives many inſtances of their deſtructive power, particularly in a wounded matroſs, when a ſhell from the mortar-boats fell into the ward of the hoſpital, and rebounding fell upon the bed where he lay. The convaleſcents and ſick, in the ſame room, inſtantly ſummoned up ſtrength to crawl out on hands and knees, whilſt the fuſe was burning; but this wretched victim was kept down by the weight of the ſhell, which after ſome ſeconds burſt, took off both his legs, and ſcorched him in a dreadful manner; he ſurvived for ſome time, and only regretted that he had not been killed on the batteries.

The grand attack was made on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ſhips, from ſix hundred to one thouſand four hundred tons burden, carrying in all two hundred and twelve braſs guns, entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of twenty-ſix pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and, on the other hand, from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that *four hundred pieces* of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment; an inſtance which ſcarcely ever before occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of gunpowder. The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the red-hot balls, which were ſent from the garriſon, was ſoon conſpicuous; for, in the afternoon, ſmoke was perceived to burſt from the admiral's ſhip and another; and by one o'clock in the morning, ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips, as ſignals of diſtreſs. To reſcue from the flames thoſe who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greateſt hazard, by reaſon of the blowing up of the ſhips, and the previous diſcharge of the guns, as the fire reached them. Yet, in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis moſt heroically diſtinguiſhed himſelf in this humane undertaking, and with twelve gun boats, ſaved nine officers, two prieſts, and three hundred and thirty four men, all Spaniards, beſides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in, the preceding evening. Such hazardous exploits of humanity, are ſuperior to all praiſe, and deſerve to be tranſmitted, on braſs and marble, to the laſt generations of mankind.

Thus ended the hopes formed by the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. But, great as was the bravery of the Britiſh garriſon, the ſmall numbers of the killed and wounded are alone ſufficient to ſhow, that they muſt have been aſſiſted by very ſtrong fortifications, or it was impoſſible that any ſkill whatever could have reſiſted ſuch a tremendous power. Some unimportant operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace, in 1783.

In other enterpriſes the Spaniards were more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been beſieged for one hundred and ſeventy-one days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than two thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-two men, while the forces of the beſiegers amounted to ſixteen thouſand, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt general Murray, the governor; but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced the Britiſh troops to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender, in ſpite of every effort of human fortitude or ſkill. The Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, and paid them every mark of reſpect, to which unſucceſsful bravery is entitled.

The late catholic king uſed much pains to oblige his ſubjects to change their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned an inſurrection at Madrid, and obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace. The ſmalleſt injury was not offered to individuals; and ſeveral of the inſurgents,

who had called for liquor in public houſes, came back next day to pay their reckoning.

Charles III. late king of Spain, was born in 1716, ſucceeded to the throne in 1759, and died November 13, 1788. He was ſucceeded by his ſecond ſon, Charles Anthony, prince of Auſturias; the eldeſt having died in 1775.

Charles IV. preſent king of Spain, was born November 11, 1748, was married September 4, 1765, to princeſs Louiſa of Parma, born December 9, 1751; and has had ſix children.

The preſent king of Spain has entered into the general combination of the ſovereigns of Europe, againſt the republic of France. The conſequences of this ſtep ſhall be related under that head. We need here only mention that his life has been in the utmoſt danger. Five Frenchmen in his life guards, conſpired to kill him. They fired, and ſome of the balls went through his clothes, without hurting him. An order was ſoon after publiſhed for the indiſcriminate expulſion of all Frenchmen from Spain. The total number of theſe unfortunate people, in that country, is ſaid to have been about ſeventy thouſand. Of theſe, many were ariſtocrats; ſo that the edict was, in every point of view, and in every ſenſe of the word, a moſt abominable act of tyranny. Vaſt multitudes of theſe victims have been driven out of Spain, without being allowed time to diſpoſe of their property, and with only as much money, as would pay their paſſage to another country. Several of them have actually arrived in Philadelphia, ſome of whom had been obliged to leave their families and effects behind them, and take refuge in the firſt ſhip, which they could meet with. To Spain itſelf, ſuch an act of deſpotiſm muſt be extremely injurious; and, it is likely, that its application will, in many inſtances, be ſoftened, from the mere difficulty of carrying it literally into execution.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	37 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth	100		68 and 65 eaſt longitude, from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and eaſt, and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It is divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The Northern Diviſion contains	Entre Minho,	Braga,	6,814
	Douro,	Oporto and Viana,	
	Tralos Montes,	Miranda and Villa Real,	
The Middle Diviſion contains	Beira,	Coimbra,	12,610
		Guada Caſtel Rodigro,	
		LISBON, 38-42 N. lat. 66-25 E. lon.	
	Eſtremadura,	St. Ubes and Leira.	

Brought forward				18,454
The Southern Division contains	Entre Tajo		Ebora, or Evora	
	Guadiana		Portalegre, Elvas, Beja	
	Alentejo		Lagos	8,397
	Algarva		Faro, Tavaro, and Silves	
				27,851

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain, for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which is imported from other countries; and in particular from the United States of America. Its fruits are the ſame as thoſe of Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, when old and genuine, are friendly to the conſtitution, and ſafe to drink*. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; it has a variety of gems, marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre, near Liſbon. Its cattle and poultry are eſteemed but indifferent food. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients.

MOUNTAINS.] Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky. The mountains are Tralos Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tagus, or, according to its lateſt name, Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] In Portugal almoſt every brook is dignified by the name of a river. The chief Portugueſe rivers have already been mentioned in our account of Spain. All of them fall into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand. Some hot baths are found in the province of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories, or capes of Portugal, are cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the ſame river; and cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarva. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay, in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable food. Their mules are ſure-footed, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains nearly two millions of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom three thouſand three hundred and forty-four pariſhes, and one million ſeven hundred and forty-two thouſand two hundred and thirty lay perſons, beſides about three hundred thouſand eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes. This laſt number is enormous†.

About the era of the diſcovery of the paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies by the cape of Good-Hope, the Portugueſe occupied a moſt diſtinguiſhed place among the nations of Europe. Their ſeamen were among the moſt adventurous, and their ſoldiers among the braveſt in the world. But their ſubjugation to the tyranny of Spain produced all the effects which the deſpotiſm of one nation, exerciſed over another, has in all ages and in all countries produced. Their character degenerated. They were expoſed to all the horrors of wars entered into without their concurrence; and were

* The port-wines are made in the diſtrict round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is conſumed under that name in the Britiſh dominions only. The merchants in that city have very ſpacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

† This number is copied from the London edition. We are ſatisfied that there muſt be a miſtake in the account, and moſt likely by the addition of a cypher. We have not materials to aſcertain the truth. It is quite impoſſible that Portugal could ſupport ſo vaſt a number of religious incumbents. Spain, though five times as populous, and fully as much under the dominion of the church, has but an hundred and ſix thouſand.

debarred from any participation in the advantages (if from ſuch a horrid ſource as war, any advantage can ariſe) attending on them. They were ſucceſſively a prey to the Dutch and the Engliſh, who wreſted from them ſome of their moſt valuable poſſeſſions.

The tranſition from the domination of the houſe of Auſtria to that of the Braganza family, being only the expulſion of one tyrant to make room for another, no material change was produced in the character or manners of the nation, no ſuch renovation as ariſes from an exchange of deſpotiſm for liberty. And the benumbing effects of ſlavery, which increaſe in proportion to its duration, have not been likely to awaken the dormant dignity and majeſty of the human character. Notwithſtanding theſe unpropitious circumſtances attending the Portugueſe, which muſt have ſufficiently darkened their moral character, the travellers and hiſtorians who have written about them, have added ſhade to ſhade, until they exhibited a picture of depravity and debaſement almoſt equal to that of the Romans under their deteſtable emperors. Were we to believe the writers on this ſubject, almoſt every vice, and every crime, of which human nature is capable, conſpires to form the national character of this nation, and hardly is the ray of one virtue allowed to diſſipate, in part, the clouds of villainy, vice, and folly. To the liſt of revilers of Portugal, Guthrie has added his name. In the laſt London edition of this work, the Portugueſe are branded as proud, treacherous, ungrateful, revengeful, ſuperſtitious, and thieviſh; and as if this was not enough, they are, in the groſs, ſet down as addicted to various other vices.—This ſhocking character, probably drawn by ſome traveller, equally *accurate* and *intelligent* with Chaſtelleux, Smith, and Anbury, has been tranſcribed for a hundred years by the miſerable herd of copyiſts. But it is full time, for the great family of mankind to ceaſe from the fatal practice of pourtraying each other as angels of darkneſs, and then mutually exciting in their breaſts a "holy abhorrence" of phantoms that have only an airy exiſtence.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate. The nobility affect to be more gaily and richly dreſſed. The characteriſtical diſtinction between the Spaniards and Portugueſe, is thus deſcribed by mr. Coſtigan: "In Spain, the nobleman is what he ought to be; brave, ſincere, and liberal, both in his ſentiments and actions. In this country, he is perfectly the reverſe. As you deſcend among the Spaniards, the national character vitiates. In Portugal, the lower that you deſcend in rank, the perſonal character riſes, and improves upon you; and you will hardly meet with a peaſant who is not courteous and affable." The Portugueſe ladies are ſlender and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much aukwardneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands, to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they ſeldom diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, and, in imitation of the Moors, they ſit croſs-legged on the ground.

The Portugueſe peaſant has never derived any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vaſt countries that the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in Africa, and the Eaſt, or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South-America The only foreign luxury which he is yet acquainted with, is tobacco; and when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundland cod fiſh; but this is a luxury to which he ſeldom dares aſpire. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give the bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is Roman catholic. The Portugueſe have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a contention ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of the pope in Portugal has been of late much curtailed. The royal revenues are greatly increaſed, at the expenſe of the religious inſtitutions. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted into a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and of a diſtinguiſhed family.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. The Pater noſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos; ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, ſcia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos Ceos, commo na terra. O paoneſſa de cadadia, dano lo oei neſtro dia. E perdoa nos, ſenhor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi como nos pardonamos a nos noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The literature of this country is in ſuch a low ſtate, as to excite the indignation, even of the Portugueſe themſelves. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by ſome of them, to draw their countrymen from this ſtate of ignorance. The defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowlege, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than any other European nation, about the middle of the ſixteenth century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who was himſelf a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius. His Luſiad is a kind of epic poem, on the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, and the paſſage by that route to the Eaſt-Indies. It has merit, and is ſpoken of by Cervantes, in the higheſt terms. An Engliſh tranſlation has been publiſhed by mr. Mickle, which has very great merit.

UNIVERSITIES.] That of Coimbra was founded in 1219 by king Dennis; and had fifty profeſſors. Buchanan was for ſome time one of them. He has left us a variety of ſhort poetical pieces reſpecting the manners of the ſtudents, and the characters of ſome of the profeſſors; and the verſes exhibit a very intereſting picture of the age and nation. Evora was founded in 1559. There is alſo a college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility have an opportunity of being educated in every branch of polite learning, and the ſciences. All the books that belonged to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, and compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a college where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering.

CURIOSITIES.] The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and acqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be likewiſe of Roman work. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are magnificent. Several monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are Moſaic work, curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours. The king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt, though not the moſt valuable, diamond in the world. It was found in Braſil

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon, the capital of Portugal, is thought to contain two hundred thouſand inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, the 1ſt of November, 1755. The jails being thrown down, the criminals broke out, plundering and ſetting fire to ſeveral places of the town. Liſbon ſtill contains many magnificent

palaces, churches, and public buildings. It riſes from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent, and its appearance is at once delightful and ſuperb. It is accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they could make but a feeble defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city which was demoliſhed by the earthquake, has been ſince planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are a ready built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform, they are built of white ſtone, and make a beautiful appearance. The ſecond city in the kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain thirty thouſand inhabitants. The chief article of commerce there is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by awnings hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES. With regard to agriculture, this country is in a wretched ſtate, producing grain for only three months conſumption, which renders corn the moſt conſiderable article of importation. This muſt be aſcribed to the baneful influence of a deſpotic government; for ſuch is the natural fertility of the ſoil of this country, that one province alone is ſaid to be capable of producing twice the quantity of wheat neceſſary to ſupply the whole nation.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt, fruits, and moſt of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are ſkilled in preſerving and candying fruits. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her. The European nations trading with her, engroſs, as well as her own native commodities, as the gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red-wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil, the ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and the Eaſt-Indies, in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantities of corn and ſalt fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, by the United States, and by the Engliſh colonies.

Among the Portugueſe foreign ſettlements, are, Braſil, the iſles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They are of immenſe value, and vaſtly improveable. Gold is brought from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their other ſettlements. What the value of theſe may be, is unknown, perhaps, to themſelves; but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in Spaniſh America. It is computed, that the king's fifth of the gold ſent from Braſil, amounts annually to above thirteen hundred thouſand dollars, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. What little ſhipping the Portugueſe have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade; and in a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there, as Diu, Daman, Macoa, &c.

The firſt conqueſts of the Portugueſe in Aſia and Africa, did not ſtifle the ſeeds of their induſtry. Though Liſbon was the general warehouſe for India goods, their own manufactures in ſilk and wool continued to flouriſh, and were ſufficient for the conſumption both of Portugal and Braſil. Among the many calamities that Spaniſh tyranny brought upon the country, Portugal could not complain of a ceſſation of domeſtic induſtry.

The revolution of 1640, which placed the duke of Braganza upon the throne, was followed by a long and bloody war with Spain, which reduced great part of the

country to a ſtate of deſolation. We have ſeen, by what means, the monarch of Pruſſia reſtored his provinces, from a condition equally deplorable. But the maſters of Portugal had neither the genius nor the benevolence of Frederic. This people, ſhut up in the corner of a peninſula, at the weſtern extremity of Europe, wanted allies to protect them from the Spaniards, by whom they were ſurrounded on two ſides. For this purpoſe, they formed alliances, and, to ſecure the fidelity of their new friends, granted them, in commerce, extenſive privileges. France ſeems to have been the firſt of theſe mercantile protectors. England ſucceeded her; and, in 1703, a commercial treaty was ſubſcribed between the two nations. This meaſure completely deſtroyed the remainder of Portugueſe manufactures, and even a great ſhare of that degree of agriculture, which had ſurvived the ravages of war, and of domeſtic tyranny. The Portugueſe tradeſmen could not enter into a competition with thoſe of England. That country clothed her new ally. In return, ſhe received from Portugal, wine, oil, ſalt, and fruit. What ſhe bought, was trifling compared with what ſhe ſold; and the balance was received in the gold of Braſil. Raynal has ſaid, that England ſupplied Portugal annually, with woollen manufactures, to the extent of thirteen hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; and that in return, ſhe took, of wine, oil, ſalt, and fruits, to the value of only about one hundred and thirteen thouſand pounds. This ſtatement, if accurate, gives a yearly balance of gold in favour of England, on the account of woollen ſtuffs only, to the extent of almoſt eleven hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. But, beſides this article, England furniſhed Portugal with almoſt all the luxuries, conveniences, and even neceſſaries of life, and likewiſe ſhips, and naval and warlike ſtores. England carried on almoſt the whole navigation, and engroſſed the inland trade of Portugal. Engliſh houſes were ſettled at Liſbon, which received the commodities of Britain, and diſtributed them to merchants, who retailed them in the provinces. The fleets deſtined for Braſil, were, in fact, the property of Britiſh merchants. From the regiſters of the fleets, it has been ſaid to appear, that one hundred and five millions ſterling of gold had been tranſmitted from South-America to Portugal, in a period of ſixty years, that is to ſay, from the diſcovery of the mines to the year 1756. Yet, in 1754, the whole current caſh in Portugal was eſtimated not to exceed ſeven or eight hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, and at the ſame time the nation was indebted in three millions one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. Britain went farther ſtill. She taught Portugal to loſe all regard and weight in the political ſyſtem of Europe, by perſuading her to maintain neither forces nor alliances. Thus, without bloodſhed or labour, and without any of the calamities that attend conqueſt, the Britiſh made themſelves as effectually maſters of Portugal, as the Spaniards had been under Philip II.

For almoſt forty years paſt, this monopoly has been upon the decline; and England is now ſuppoſed to engroſs not more than one-third of the Portugueſe trade. This has produced numerous complaints from the Britiſh merchants; and Pombal, the Portugueſe miniſter, committed, as might have been expected from his character and ſituation, ſome acts of deſpotiſm, in his endeavours to check the Britiſh commerce. The project, however, of rendering his country independent of a foreign monopoly, was, in itſelf, laudable. It is a melancholy proof of the reduced ſtate of the Portugueſe, that they import, annually, three-fourths of the corn which they conſume. Before the ruin of the country, they not only ſupported themſelves, but ſupplied other nations with that commodity.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or ſtates, conſiſting of the clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes, but the only real power which they have, is, that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation.

with regard to the ſucceſſion. But that aſſent, when demanded by an abſolute monarch, can be nothing but a vain ceremony.

This government is one of the moſt deſpotic in Europe. The law is generally a dead letter, unleſs where its decrees are carried into execution by the ſupplementary mandates of the ſovereign; and theſe are frequently employed in defeating the purpoſes of ſafety and protection, which law ought to extend equally over all ſubjects.

It is ſaid, that the preamble of every new law, publiſhed in Portugal, runs thus: "*I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleaſure, and of my full, ſupreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, do, in conſequence, order and command,*" &c. &c.

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals; but the Caſa da Supplicacao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above three millions and a half ſterling annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported, are exceſſive, and farmed out. Foreign merchandiſe pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland, twenty-five per cent. Fiſh taken in the rivers, and the neighbouring ſeas, is ſubject to twenty-ſeven per cent. and the tax upon the ſale of lands, and cattle, is ten per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums that he draws out of Portugal, grants the king the money ariſing from indulgencies to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The royal revenues are greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and hence, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but this confidence does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, the court judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers. Since that period, the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the diſcipline of the troops. The military force of Portugal, amounts to twenty-five thouſand men. The naval force of this country forms about ſeventeen ſhips of war, including ſix frigates.

ROYAL TITLES.] The royal titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of, His moſt faithful majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon, is, prince of Braſil.

HISTORY.] Portugal comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania. In the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans, it ſhared the ſame fate with Spain; and in the fall of the Roman empire, was ſucceſſively conquered by the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert king of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal, then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Alphonſus Henry, who in July, 1139, gained a deciſive battle over five Mooriſh kings. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal; for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned forty years, and was eſteemed for his military conduct, and

his love of learning. His defcendants maintained themfelves on the throne for fome centuries.

Dennis I. or Dionyfius, rebuilt or founded forty-four cities and towns in Portugal. He was a very fortunate prince, and reigned forty-fix years. Under his fucceffor, Alphonfus IV. happened feveral earthquakes at Lifbon, which threw down part of the city, and deftroyed many lives. Under John I. and in the year 1470, Madeira and the Canaries were difcovered. John took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonfo V. about 1480, the Portugueſe difcovered the coaft of Guinea; and under his fucceffor, John II. they difcovered the Cape of Good-Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and fettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaft-Indies. Emanuel fucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceffors, fitting out fleets for new difcoveries. In his reign, Vafco de Gama cruifed along the coaft of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indoftan. In the year 1500, Alvarez difcovered Brafil.

John III. fucceeded, in 1521, and, while he loft fome of his African fettlements, made new acquifitions in the Indies. He eftablifhed the inquifition in Portugal, anno 1526, againft the entreaties and remonftrances of his people. Sebaftian, his grandfon, fucceeded him in 1557. In a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, in Africa, he was defeated, and flain or drowned. This event happened in 1578. Henry, a cardinal, fon of Emanuel, and uncle to Sebaftian, fucceeded, but died without iffue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony, prior of Crato, was chofen king, by the ftates of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been obferved in our hiftory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becaufe his mother was the eldeft daughter of the grand-mother of the princes of Braganza. On fuch frivolous circumftances, do the *rights* of princes, and the peace of nations, depend. The duke of Alva fubdued the country, and proclaimed Philip, king of Portugal, on the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys, under Philip and his two fucceffors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved to the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaffals of Spain; and, by repeated acts of oppreffion and tyranny, produced, upon the 1ſt of December, 1640, a revolt at Lifbon. The people, in fome meafure, compelled the timid duke of Braganza, legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it. He fucceeded by the title of John IV. almoft without bloodfhed, and the foreign fettlements of Portugal alfo acknowledged him as their fovereign. A fierce war fubfifted for many years between the two kingdoms; and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them, proved vain; fo that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have fupported themfelves againft Spain, had not the latter been engaged in wars with England, France, and Holland. Alphonfo, fon to John IV. was, at this time, king of Portugal. He quarrelled with his wife and his brother Peter; and, if we may judge from the fubfequent effrontery of their conduct, he had the beft reafon. They dethroned him, and obtained from the pope a difpenfation for their marriage. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a fecond marriage, had fons, the eldeft of whom was John, his fucceffor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John died in 1750, and was fucceeded by his fon Joſeph. The earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital. His fucceeding adminiftration was not diftinguifhed by the acquifition of confidence at home, or of reputation abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood. In September, 1756, the king, on his return one evening from viſiting a miſtreſs, was attacked by aſſaſſins, and was deſperately wounded. The families of Aveira, and Tavora, were deſtroyed by torture, in conſequence of an accuſation exhibited againſt them as authors of the conſpiracy. They were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence hath ſince been publicly and authentically declared.

The abolition of the ſociety of Jeſuits, originated in the court of Portugal, and deſerves ſome notice in this place. The active genius of this order, which, at a very early period of the preceding century, had penetrated the remoteſt countries of Aſia, directed their attention to the extenſive continent of America, as a proper object of their miſſions, and they had formed a conſiderable ſettlement in the province of Paraguay. Here they made a rapid progreſs in the inſtruction of the Indians, in arts, religion, and the more ſimple manufactures, and accuſtomed them to the bleſſings of ſecurity and peace. A few fathers preſided over many thouſand Indians. The tyrants who overturned their authority pretend, that they ſoon altered their views, and directed them altogether to the increaſe of the opulence and power of their ſociety. They annually exported, to Europe, quantities of gold; and with a deſign of ſecuring to themſelves, an independent empire in theſe regions, they induſtriouſly cut off all communication between their new ſubjects, and the Spaniards and Portugueſe in the adjacent provinces. Such was the ſtate of affairs, when, in the year 1750, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Liſbon and Madrid, which aſcertained the limits of their reſpective dominions in South America. Perhaps this meaſure was nothing but a pretence, employed by both cabinets, for dividing the dominions of theſe paternal ſovereigns, whoſe adminiſtration preſented a contraſt ſo degrading to their own. On the *juſtice* of ſuch a partition, it is needleſs to ſay much. The two nations were, in every part of South America, both uſurpers and deſpots. The Jeſuits were the only Europeans in that region of the world, who poſſeſſed a legitimate title to exerciſe ſupreme authority. That title was founded on the conſent, and employed ſolely for the benefit, of the Indians, the original proprietors and poſſeſſors of the ſoil. Why ſhould we ſpeak of the barbarous ravages of the Goths and Vandals, when every modern era is darkened with acts of atrocity not inferior to theirs? The Jeſuits made ſome oppoſition, as we ſhall mention under the article of PARAGUAY, but were finally driven out of the country. Under pretence of their being concerned in the conſpiracy againſt the life of the king, the Jeſuits, of all deſcriptions, were, in the beginning of the year 1759, impriſoned, or baniſhed from the kingdom of Portugal. Their immenſe property, the moſt probable cauſe of their perſecution, was confiſcated. The hoſtilities, which, not long after, commenced between Portugal and Spain, protracted the exiſtence of the Jeſuits in the latter kingdom. But the jealouſy, which their conduct had excited in the court of Madrid, only lay dormant for a time. Their deſtruction ſeems a counterpart to the maſſacre of the Templars.

In 1752, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards and their allies, the French, attempted to force the king of Portugal into their alliance, and wanted to garriſon his ſeaport-towns, againſt the Engliſh, with their troops. He rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards. Without reſiſtance, they entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French troops threatened it from another quarter. Some have weakly doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war, was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain. Portugal was ſaved by the interference of England, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau, in 1763.

The king having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was, by diſpenſation from the pope, married to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the nation.

Maria-Francis-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married 1760, to her

uncle, Don Pedro, who was born in 1717, by whom ſhe has had two ſons and two daughters. Of theſe, the eldeſt, Joſeph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Brazil, was born in 1761, and married in 1777, to his aunt Mary-Franciſca-Benedicta, born in 1746.

2. Infant John-Maria-Joſeph, 1767.

3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.

4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

The queen of Portugal has, for ſome time, been in a ſtate of lunacy. An Engliſh phyſician, of great eminence, made ſome vain efforts to cure her. Her court has joined in the general combination againſt France. Her feeble power has been of little avail to the confederates; nor is it likely to be any injury to the republic. To the honour of the Portugueſe, be it mentioned, that they have ſhown their abhorrence of the abominable machiaveliſm which has officiouſly let looſe the Algerines to prey on the trade of the United States. They have granted a convoy to the homeward-bound American veſſels, which were detained at Liſbon, through the apprehenſion of being captured by thoſe free-booters. Laſt Sunday (Jan. 12th) the firſt of theſe otherwiſe devoted ſhips, the Brandywine Miller, arrived in our port. Several others have ſince arrived in different parts of the union. The convoy, it is ſaid, conſiſted of ſeven men of war, of various ſizes, which received orders to eſcort our fleet to a latitude beyond danger. In addition to this wiſe and generous policy, an edict has been publiſhed, directing the Portugueſe men of war and frigates, to ſtop all veſſels of the United States, taken by the Algerines, and to releaſe ſuch of them, as ſhall appear, on due examination, to have been bound for any part of Portugal.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 750 / Greateſt breadth 400	between	38 and 47 north latitude. / 82 and 94 eaſt longitude, from Philadelphia.

ITALY extends from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about ſeven hundred and fifty miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about four hundred miles. In ſome parts, however, it is ſcarcely one hundred.

BOUNDARIES.] This country, towards the Eaſt, is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; on the South and Weſt, by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the North, by the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The contents of the whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are exhibited in the following table.

Italy. Countries Names.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
To the king of Sardinia.	Piedmont	6,619	140	98	Turin
	Savoy	3,572	87	60	Chamberry
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Caſal
	Aleſſandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6,600	135	57	Cagliari
To the king of Naples.	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
	Sicily I.	9,400	180	92	Palermo
To the emperor.	Milan	5,431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	ROME, N. lat. 41-54. E. long. 87-45.
Belonging To their reſpective princes.	Tuſcany	6,640	115	94	Florence
	Maſſa	82	16	11	Maſſa
	Parma	1,225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1,560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics.	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2,400	160	25	Genoa
To France.	Corſica I.	2,520	90	38	Baſtia
To the republic of Venice.	Venice	8,434	175	95	Venice
	Iſtria P.	1,245	46	32	Capo d'Iſtria
	Dalmatia P.	1,400	135	20	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1,364			
Iſlands in the Venitian dominions.	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura.
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3	
	Ithaca olim				
	Total	97,672			

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life, in great abundance. Wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are very general productions. As much corn grows as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export grain to their neighbours. There is a great variety of air in this country. Some parts of Italy bear a melancholy proof of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature: for, the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed a most salubrious air, is now pestilential, through the putrid exhalations of stagnant water. The air of the northern parts of Italy, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with snow in winter. The Appennines, a ridge of mountains extending through the greater part of Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries south of them being warm, those on the north mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which are the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which last runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul. There are several lakes in Italy. They have nothing very remarkable.

SEAS.] The seas of Italy are the Adriatic sea, or gulph of Venice, the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities. Several mountains abound in mines which produce emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for smelting and fabricating these metals is erected near Trivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected. Curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble, of all kinds, is one of the chief productions of Italy.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence. There are at Rome, considerable remains of that erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Coliseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, besides twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction; and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, deprived it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, and, with infinite pains and labour, took away what was practicable of the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and an half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and an half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the

expenſe of the inhabitants. They frequently exhibit in it plays, combats of wild beaſts, and other public ſpectacles. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas which we can form of Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which has been converted into a church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which antiently contained the ſtatues of the heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli freeſtone, and within, it is encruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a perforated ſtone. The colonnade in the front, which conſiſts of ſix columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high; and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. At the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area, before the church, is a fountain, with an antique baſon of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former one hundred and ſeventy-five feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the venerable column erected by Duilius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory that the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other antiquities, tranſmitted, unhurt, to the preſent times; not to mention the infinite variety of medals, ſeals, and engraved ſtones, which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmelian roads, the firſt two hundred, the ſecond one hundred and thirty, and the third fifty miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, every where preſent themſelves.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the common ſewers; and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above thirty years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding. An infinite variety of curioſities has been already dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which, in the reign of Nero, was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, anno 79, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava, in its courſe, filled up the ſtreets, in ſome places, to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the houſes, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away. It is compoſed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which, united, form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the revolution of ſo many ages, the ſpot which it ſtood upon was entirely forgotten; but, in the year 1713, when digging in theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortu-

nate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre, were the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. There were likewise found among the ruins, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils. The search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built and much alike; some of the rooms were paved with mosaic, others with fine marble, or with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping, with many of their rich effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold, silver, or precious stones. The difficulty of removing the rubbish, induced the king to roll it in again as he went on, after collecting all the moveables of any consequence. The theatre alone is left open. It is larger than any in England. The ends of the beams, burnt to coal, still adhere to the walls; but all the ornaments that withstood the eruption, are removed to Portici.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of the latter. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared; and that with more facility than at Herculaneum, no lava having ever gone over the ashes which buried Pompeia. The street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised, a foot and a half on each side, for the conveniency of foot passengers. The street itself is not so broad as the common streets of Philadelphia, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing animals. They are tolerably well executed, and, on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear surprisingly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for showing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town, is a rectangular building, with a colonnade towards the court. This has every appearance of a barrack and guard-room; the pillars are of brick, covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted; the scrowlings and drawings, still visible on the walls, are such as might be naturally expected on the walls of a guard-room, where soldiers are the designers, and swords the engraving tools. They consist of gladiators fighting, some with each other, some with wild beasts; the games of the circus, as chariot races, wrestling, and the like; a few figures in caricatura, designed probably by some of the soldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers; and there are many names inscribed on various parts of the wall. At a considerable distance from the barrack is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which, are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are those of this temple: they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town; but a con-

ſiderable number in the houſes. In one apartment were the ſkeletons of ſeventeen wretches, who had been confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, and ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly ſhow that they were endeavouring to eſcape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as numerous as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains three hundred churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and, when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination.

The natural curioſities of Italy are numerous. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius, towards the ſea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount Veſuvius has been computed to be three thouſand nine hundred feet above the ſurface of the ſea. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate. At the latter period, it broke out with accumulated fury, and ſpread deſolation for miles around. In 1694, there was a great eruption, which continued near a month, while burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, ſweeping every thing before it, which lay in its way. In 1707, there was another eruption, and ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark in Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the twenty-ſeventh from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this laſt eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreet were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard againſt them. The tops of the houſes, and the balconies, were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly deſcribed by ſir William Hamilton, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

This gentleman, the Britiſh envoy at the court of Naples, took great pains to inveſtigate the phenomena of this volcano. From the time of his arrival at Naples, in 1764, he paid particular regard to the ſtate of the mountain at all times; and obſerves, that the ſmoke is much more conſiderable in bad, than in fair weather; and that the inward exploſions of the mountain are often, in bad weather, heard at Naples. On looking into the mouth, from whence the fire iſſues, in fair weather the ſmoke has often been ſo little, that he has ſeen a great way down, and obſerved the ſides to be incruſted with ſalts and minerals of various colours, white, green, deep, and pale yellow. In bad weather, the ſmoke was moiſt, white, and much leſs offenſive than the ſteams which iſſued from the cracks in the ſides of the mountain. The ſigns of an approaching eruption, are an encreaſe of the ſmoke in fair weather; and after this has continued for ſome time, a column of black ſmoke is frequently obſerved to ſhoot up in the middle of the white kind, to a prodigious height; and theſe columns are attended with conſiderable exploſions. While Veſuvius was in this ſtate, ſir William aſcended to the top. It was about the beginning of November, and the upper part of the mountain was then covered with ſnow. A little

hillock of ſulphur, about ſix feet high, had been thrown up, by the mountain and burned with a blue flame at the top; but while our author was examining this phenomenon, a ſudden and loud report was heard, a column of black ſmoke ſhot up with violence, and was followed by a reddiſh flame. A ſhower of ſtones fell, which obliged him to retire; and he informs us, that it is by no means ſafe to approach too near to the mountain in this ſtate, as ſome gentlemen, whom he mentions, were wounded by the ſtones which were thrown out by a ſimilar exploſion. As the eruption proceeds, the ſmoke becomes totally black in the day time, and at night appears like clouds tinged by the ſetting ſun. Afterwards it appears like flame in the night; ſhowers of aſhes are thrown out, earthquakes are produced, and great vollies of red-hot ſtones are diſcharged to an immenſe height in the air. The height and diſtance to which theſe ſtones are thrown, is generally in proportion to the magnitude of the volcano which emits them, and hence the exploſions of Veſuvius are, for the moſt part, leſs terrible than thoſe of Ætna. This, however, is not always the caſe; and the eruption, in 1779, from Veſuvius, ſeems to have been as violent as we have an account of in any volcano whatever. The largeſt ſtone thrown out by Veſuvius, whoſe dimenſions have been meaſured, was twelve feet in length, and forty-five in circumference. It was projected to the diſtance of a quarter of a mile from the place whence it was emitted; but much larger ones have been thrown out from volcanoes of a ſuperior magnitude: and mr. Brydone was aſſured by the canon Recupero, that he had ſeen ſtones of immenſe magnitude thrown out from Ætna, to the height of more than ſeven thouſand feet above the top of the mountain, as he computed from the time that they took in falling. Added to theſe dreadful phenomena, the ſmoke which iſſues from the mountain, is in a highly electrified ſtate. The ſmall aſhes which the mountain continually throws out, with the ſtones and cinders, are attracted by the ſmoke, and form with it, one vaſt, and to appearance, denſe column, from whence continual flaſhes of forked, or zig-zag lightning iſſue, ſometimes attended with thunder, and ſometimes not, but equally powerful with the ordinary lightning. This phenomenon has been taken notice of in the accounts of all volcanoes. Pliny mentions it in his account of the great eruption in the year 79; it has been obſerved in thoſe of the Icelandic volcanoes; in Ætna; and ſir William Hamilton has more than once ſeen it proceed from the ſmoke of Veſuvius.

There was an eruption on the 28th of March, 1766, about ſeven at night. The lava began to boil over in one ſtream, but ſoon after divided itſelf into two. It was preceded by a partial earthquake, in the neighbourhood of the mountain, occaſioned by a violent exploſion; and a ſhower of red-hot ſtones and cinders were thrown up to a conſiderable height. The lava had the appearance of red-hot and liquid metal, ſuch as the vitrified matter of the glaſs-houſes, on which were large floating cinders, half-lighted, and rolling one over another, down the mountain, with great precipitation, forming a moſt beautiful and uncommon caſcade. The colour of the fire was much paler and brighter during the firſt night than afterwards, when it became of a deep red, probably owing to its having been, at firſt, more impregnated with ſulphur than in the end. In the day time, unleſs when viewed very near, the lava has no appearance of fire; but its courſe is marked by a thick white ſmoke.

So great was the heat of the lava, as not to admit an approach nearer than within ten feet of the ſtream, and ſuch its conſiſtency, though it appeared as liquid as water, as almoſt to reſiſt the impreſſion of a long ſtick, with which the experiment was made. Large ſtones, thrown upon it with the utmoſt force, did not ſink; but, making a ſlight impreſſion, floated on the ſurface, and were carried out of ſight in a ſhort time; for, notwithſtanding the conſiſtency of the matter, it ran with great velocity; not leſs, in ſir William Hamilton's opinion, than that of a rapid river. The ſtream was about ten feet wide at its ſource, but ſoon extended itſelf, dividing into

three branches, ſo that theſe rivers of fire, communicating their heat to the cinders of former lavas, between one branch and the other, had, at night, the appearance of a continued ſheet of fire, four miles long, and, in ſome places, near two in breadth.

Next year, there was a much more violent eruption of the mountain; and the frequent emiſſions of red-hot ſtones and cinders, which took place previous to the eruption, had, at laſt, by their continually falling back into the place from whence they were emitted, formed a ſmall mountain within the mouth of the great one. From the top of this ſmall mountain, the ſmoke iſſued ſo thick, that it ſeemed to have a difficulty in effecting a paſſage: while volleys of great ſtones were, every minute, thrown up to an immenſe height. At laſt the whole took the ſhape of a huge pine-tree, which appearance was taken notice of by Pliny, in his account of the eruption in 79. The column aſcended to ſuch an extraordinary height, as, when bent by the wind, to reach the iſland of Caprea, not leſs than twenty-eight miles from Veſuvius. Theſe violent ſymptoms ceaſed on the burſting forth of the lava; after which, our author, ſuppoſing the danger was over, went to the mountain to make his obſervations. But while he was thus employed, a violent noiſe was heard within the mountain, immediately after which the lava broke out from a new mouth, only a quarter of a mile diſtant from where he ſtood, ſpringing up to a conſiderable height in the air, and rolling directly towards him. He was now in extreme danger, the earth ſhaking with ſuch violence as to endanger the fall of ſome of the rocks under which he muſt neceſſarily paſs, while the ſhowers of cinders and pumice ſtones threatened to overwhelm him; and the clouds of ſmoke produced ſuch an intenſe darkneſs, that he could not ſee which way to go. The ſulphureous ſmell was likewiſe very offenſive, and the exploſions of the mountain were much louder than thunder. In this ſituation, he ran three miles before he got out of danger, and afterwards perceived that the lava had actually covered the road by which he retreated, to the depth of no leſs than ſixty or ſeventy feet. The concuſſions of the air were ſo violent upon this occaſion, that windows and doors of houſes, even though locked, were burſt open. There was likewiſe a continual and ſubterraneous noiſe; which laſted for ſeveral hours, and which was probably owing to rain-water lodged in the cavities of the mountain, and meeting with the lava.

The eruption of 1779, was much more violent than that already deſcribed. It commenced in the month of Auguſt, and, beſides the uſual ſymptoms of vollies of ſtones, and immenſe clouds of ſmoke, a moſt extraordinary ſcene was preſented by the approach of a thunder cloud. No ſooner did this come over the mouth of the inflamed volcano, than the fire from its bowels ſpouted out in a vaſt column to meet that in the cloud; both together producing an appearance not to be paralleled. Next night the lava, which had not hitherto got ſufficient vent, after a moſt aſtoniſhing exploſion, ſpouted up to the height of at leaſt ten thouſand feet above the ſummit of the mountain, while the ſmoke around it, emitting continual flaſhes of zig-zag lightning, gave an appearance much more awful and tremendous, though leſs beautiful, than that of the preceding evening. On this occaſion, the town of Ottaiano, upon which the volcanic ſhower was driven by the wind, narrowly eſcaped the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeia. The vaſt ſtream of lava, indeed, did not reach it, otherwiſe its fate was inevitabe.

To the ſubterraneous fires, by which the volcanoes are produced, we muſt undoubtedly aſcribe the frequency of earthquakes in this country. In the year 1783, the ſouthern part of Italy was ruined by one of the moſt violent earthquakes mentioned in hiſtory. It affected alſo the iſland of Sicily, but leſs dreadfully. Its violent effects were confined within a circle whoſe circumference is two hundred and twenty Italian miles, and its centre the town of Oppido.

The moſt terrible ſhock happened about noon, on the 5th of February. It came on inſtantaneouſly, without any warning, and ſeemed to be directed perpendicularly upwards. Oppido is ſituated on a mountain, ſurrounded by two rivers, in a very broad and deep ravine. Into this, vaſt pieces of the plain were detached, in ſuch a manner as to ſtop the courſe of both the rivers, and to form two great lakes. Part of the rock, on which the town ſtood, was alſo precipitated into the ſame hollow, with ſeveral houſes which had been built upon it. Vaſt tracts of land, with large plantations of vines and olive trees, were thrown from one ſide of the hollow to the other, though the diſtance was more than half a mile; and upon one of theſe fragments of earth, a countryman was tranſported, with his field and two oxen, which were drawing a plough, to the diſtance above mentioned, without receiving any injury. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance, however, was, that a hill, about two hundred and fifty feet high, and one thouſand three hundred in circumference, was moved from its place near four miles down this ravine, before it ſettled. In ſeveral places, alſo, the ſoil, though there was no appearance of fire upon it, had run like the lava of a volcano, and overflowed, like it, the neighbouring grounds.

At Terra Nuova, the ground on which the town ſtood, was ſplit under it, and many hundred houſes, with the earth on which they were built, were, in a ſimilar manner, thrown about half a mile from their former poſition; and, what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of the inhabitants were dug out of the ruins alive, and even unhurt. At Caſal Nuova, the princeſs of Gerace Grimaldi, and more than four thouſand of her ſubjects, were deſtroyed in a moment. Several perſons, who had been dug alive out of the ruins, declared that they felt their houſes ſuddenly lifted from the foundation, without having had the leaſt previous warning. One of them, who happened to be on a hill, which at that time, overlooked the town, turned about on feeling the ſhock, but, inſtead of the town, ſaw only a vaſt cloud of white duſt in the place where it had been. The whole, indeed, was ſo effectually overthrown, as to be converted into one promiſcuous heap of ruins. Near Scilla, a mountain fell into the ſea, and raiſed ſuch a ſtrong wave, as at once ſwept away the prince of Scilla, with four hundred and ſeventy-three of his ſubjects. A great part of the town of Meſſina was overthrown. That part of Calabria, moſt affected by this grievous calamity, lies between 38 and 39 degrees. Theſe were ſome of the particulars of this earthquake, remarkable not only for its violence, but for the number and continuance of its ſhocks, which ſcarcely ceaſed for a whole year after its commencement. The number of perſons who loſt their lives, was computed to be forty thouſand. The damage, in other reſpects, was prodigious.

It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous, and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country around it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage, with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed that the mountain, being open and active, proves leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions ceaſed, and its ſtruggles were confined to its own bowels.*

The plain of Solfaterro, ſo called from the vaſt quantities of ſulphur, which are continually forced out of the cliffs by ſubterranean fires, is juſtly conſidered as one

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquake in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, the ſeat of which lay deep, either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova.

of the natural curioſities of Italy. It is ſituated between the lakes of Agnano and Puzuoli, and ſeems the crater of an ancient volcano, or the hollow from whence its eruptions formerly iſſued. Smoke ſtill burſts from many parts, as well of the plain, as of the ſides. From theſe places, they collect a kind of ſal-ammoniac, but in a very aukward manner, by heaping ſtones upon one another to collect the vapours as they riſe. From the ſoil of the plain, ſulphur and alum are extracted. The hollow ſound produced by throwing a heavy ſtone upon the plain of Solfaterra, ſeems to indicate that it is ſupported by a kind of vault; and it is alſo probable, that there is underneath it a pool of water, which boils by the heat of a ſubterraneous fire ſtill deeper. On the outſide, and towards the lake Agnano, water guſhes out of the rock, ſo hot, as to raiſe the quickſilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, to the boiling point. After heavy rains, however, the heat of this fountain is diminiſhed. On a near approach to the rocks whence the water iſſues, a boiling noiſe is heard, which ſeems to proceed from the huge cauldron, that may be ſuppoſed to be under the Solfaterra.

Mount Ætna is ten thouſand nine hundred and fifty-four feet in height, and has been computed to be ſixty miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains; its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper are, almoſt the whole year, covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous. In one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed; and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and eighteen thouſand people periſhed.

The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams. It derives its name from its being fatal to dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there; which, to gratify the cruel curioſity of travellers, is often done. Its noxious properties would be equally felt by any other animal; but the faithful dog ſeems, alone, devoted to the fatal experiment. The vapour is fixed air, which is produced, probably, from the effervescence of an acid and alkaline mixture; and this, being heavier than common air, is near the earth, and fatal to thoſe animals whoſe heads are ſo low as to breathe it. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which incloſe the vale of Chamouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn-fields, and rich meadows; ſo that, immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc, the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the eaſtern hemiſphere; but, for a fuller deſcription of this celebrated mountain, and of the glaciers that ſurround it, we refer our readers to the account of Switzerland.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. The ſubjects of the king of Sardinia, in Italy, are about two millions and three hundred thouſand. The city of Milan contains, by the beſt accounts, three hundred thouſand people, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the number of natives that live in the country, and inform us, by conjecture only, of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now, as it was in the time of Pliny, when it was ſaid to contain fourteen millions of inhabitants. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome others of the beautiful parts of Italy, are, at preſent,

in a manner deſolate; but the modern Italians are, in a great meaſure, free from the conſtant wars, which formerly, even down to the ſixteenth century, depopulated their country. Beſides, the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which promote population; ſo that it may not, perhaps, be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy twenty millions of inhabitants. Some calculations greatly exceed that number.*

The Italians are generally well proportioned, and of a ſwarthy complexion. They have ſuch expreſſion in their looks, as has greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. This is the common obſervation. But Angelica Kauffman, who is, at preſent, the beſt painter of Italy, and therefore, in ſuch a caſe, a judge above exception, gave, ſome years ago, when in London, a different opinion. She ſaid, that in Italy, the features were commonly more elegant than in England, and the northern climates; but that, at the ſame time, they had much leſs force and variety of expreſſion. Dr. John Moore, in his travels, thinks that he has diſcovered, in many of the citizens of Rome, a peculiar dignity of mien. Italian women are often well ſhaped and ſprightly. Much has formerly been ſaid as to their infidelity to their huſbands, who were equally noted for their amours. Dr. Moore has enlarged, at ſome length, on this head, and ſhows that a great part of their gallantry is but an empty name. The great, in Italy, as elſewhere, are often much in want of amuſement, from their having neither the good fortune to be under the neceſſity of purſuing ſome profeſſion, nor poſſeſſing that ſuperiority of mind, which can, in every chaſm or viciſſitude of life, turn inwards, and enjoy reſources derived from itſelf. Theſe unhappy beings are, in Italy, as in moſt other countries, frivolous, fantaſtical, and inſignificant. They feel not thoſe tender and delightful emotions, which, in the domeſtic connexions of an *inferior* ſtation, ſoothe and reconcile us to the emptineſs of exiſtence. They preſume, that to be uſeleſs is to be great—to be ſeen, is to be admired—to be thoughtleſs, is to be happy. Dr. Moore gives a very ludicrous deſcription of ſome of thoſe aſſemblies in Italy, in which the nobility of both ſexes meet to enjoy the pleaſures of converſation. His account of the ſituation of the poorer claſſes deſerves inſertion. "I have not," ſays he, "ſeen ſo much poverty as I was taught to expect, yet I have ſeen far more poverty than miſery. Even the extremity of indigence is accompanied with leſs wretchedneſs here, than in many other countries. This is partly owing to the mildneſs of the climate and fertility of the ſoil, and partly to the peaceable, religious, and contented diſpoſition of the people. The miſeries which the poorer part of mankind ſuffer, from cold, are, perhaps, greater than thoſe derived from any other ſource whatever. But in Italy, the gentleneſs of the climate protects them from this calamity nine months of the year. If they can gather as much wood as to keep a moderate fire during the remaining three, and procure a coarſe cloak, they have little to fear from that quarter. Thoſe who cannot get employment, which is often the caſe in this country, and even thoſe who do not chooſe to work, which is the caſe with numbers all the world over, receive a regular maintenance from ſome convent. With this, and what little they can pick up otherwiſe, in a country where proviſions are plentiful and cheap, they paſs through life, in their own opinion, with more ſatisfaction, than if they had a greater number of conveniencies obtained by much bodily labour. Whereas, in Britain, Germany, and other northern countries, the poor have no choice but to work; for, if they remain idle, they are expoſed to miſeries more intolerable than the hardeſt labour can occaſion to the lazieſt of mankind. They are invaded at once by the accumulated agonies of hunger and cold; and if they have ever had ſufficient credit to contract a little debt,

* Mr. Swinburne ſays, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,439, excluſive of the army and navy eſtabliſhment.

they are continually in danger of being thrown into a jail amongſt pick-pockets and felons. With reſpect to the loweſt of the trades-people and the day-labourers in this country, their wages are certainly not high; nor are they willing, by great efforts of induſtry, to gain all they might; but what they do gain, is never waſted in intemperance, but fairly ſpent in their families on the real neceſſaries and comforts of life.

"The Italians are the greateſt loungers in the world; and while walking in the field, or ſtretched in the ſhade, ſeem to enjoy the ſerenity and genial warmth of their climate with a degree of luxurious indulgence, peculiar to themſelves. Without ever running into the daring exceſſes of the Engliſh, or diſplaying the friſky vivacity of the French, or the invincible phlegm of the Germans, the Italian populace diſcover a ſpecies of ſedate ſenſibility to every ſource of enjoyment, from which, perhaps, they derive a greater degree of happineſs than any of the other."

The ſame ingenious writer, ſpeaking of Naples, has the following remarkable paſſage. "A coxcomb tricked out in his fantaſtical dreſs, or any of the liveried ſlaves of the great, make no ceremony of treating thoſe poor fellows with all the inſolence and inſenſibility natural to their maſters, and for no viſible reaſon, but becauſe he is dreſſed in lace, and the other in rags. Inſtead of calling to them to make way, when the noiſe in the ſtreets prevents the common people from hearing the approach of the carriage, a ſtroke acroſs the ſhoulders with the cane of the running footman, is the uſual warning they receive. Nothing animates this people to inſurrection, but ſome very preſſing and very univerſal cauſe; ſuch as a ſcarcity of bread. Every other grievance they bear as if it was their charter. When we conſider thirty thouſand human creatures without beds or habitations, wandering almoſt naked, in ſearch of food, through the ſtreets of a well-built city; when we think of the opportunities they have of being together, and of comparing their own deſtitute ſituation with the affluence of others, one cannot help being aſtoniſhed at their patience."

In their dreſs, the Italians affect a medium between the volatility, which, till lately, was regarded as the characteriſtic of the French, and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans frequently dreſs in black. The Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make, at preſent, but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic, at a very dear rate, by the atrocious practice of emaſculating their males when young.

In Italy, parents of diſtinguiſhed or wealthy families, ſometimes hire for their ſons, miſtreſſes for a month, a year, or ſome other determined time. Concubinage is often an avowed and licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe-races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief entertainments of the Italians, except religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations. Dr. Smollet, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. "Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, (ſays he) you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a mattraſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp; for a covering you have another ſheet, as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches. An Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men,

and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; and their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns, they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat; the ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls, always killed after your arrival, boiled to rags, without the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage; another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed, as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, that you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread, all the way, is exceedingly bad; and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne, within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, is, the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night."

The account of mr. Arthur Young is much to the ſame purpoſe. In his travels through France, and ſome parts of Italy, in the years 1787, 1788, and 1789, he has, under the article of Bologna, the following deſcription. "We dined at Loiano much in the ſtyle of hogs; they ſpread for us a cloth, that had loſt, by the ſnuff, and greaſy fingers of *vetturini*, all that once was white. Our repaſt was black rice broth, that would not have diſgraced the philoſophy of Lycurgus, liver fried in rancid oil, and cold cabbage, the remnant of the preceding day. We pleaded hard for ſauſages, eggs, or good bread and onions; but in vain. We lay, not ſlept, in our clothes at Covigliano, hoping, not without fears, to eſcape the itch. Such accommodations, on ſuch a road, are really incredible. It is certainly one of the moſt frequented that is to be found in Europe. Whether you go to Florence, Rome, and Naples, by Parma, Milan, or Venice—that is, from all Lombardy, as well as from France, Spain, England, Germany, and all the north, you paſs by this route; conſequently, one would expect a tolerably good inn, to catch the perſons, whom accident, buſineſs, or any other derangements of plan, might induce to ſtop between Bologna and Florence. The only place poſſible to ſleep at, with comfort, is Maſchere, about forty miles from Bologna; but, for travellers who go any other way than by poſt, forty miles are no diviſion of ſixty-four. If the roads were in England, with a tenth of the traffic, there would be an excellent inn at every four or five miles, to receive travellers properly, at whatever diſtance their accidental departure made moſt convenient; but England and Italy have a gulph between them, as to the *comforts* of life, much wider than parts Dover and Calais."

Mr. Young, in ſome other places, gives examples of Italian naſtineſs, which a reſpect to decency prevents us from inſerting. We had intended to leave out of this edition the paſſage already quoted from dr. Smollet. But, upon examining mr. Young, the lateſt writer on this ſubject, we find that his repreſentations are conſiderably worſe. It is impoſſible to read Smollet's Travels, without diſcovering how well he fitted the character drawn of him by Sterne, under the title of Smelfungus. No cenſure of this kind, can be caſt upon mr. Young, who appears upon every occaſion, to poſſeſs that moſt valuable of all bleſſings, a diſpoſition to pleaſe and to be pleaſed. We may here remark, in general, that no part of this work affords us leſs ſatisfaction than that which eſſays to repreſent the characters of nations. The taſk is, in itſelf, extremely difficult. Of the multitude of travellers who undertake it, there is hardly one, out of an hundred, who is equal to it. Involved in a maſs of contradictions, and of untruths, the embarraſſed compiler knows not on which hand to turn, or what author deſerves the greateſt degree of credit. It is well known, amongſt a thouſand other inſtances, what an aſſemblage of fictions Monteſquieu has embodied in his

book, on the ſpirit of laws: a publication which has acquired a much higher degree of celebrity than its intrinſic merits juſtify. This philoſopher pretends to aſcertain the moral character of a people, by the degree of latitude under which they are born. But, beſides the difficulty of obtaining exact information, the genius and manners of a nation have ſometimes undergone a complete revolution in the courſe of a few years; ſo that, even to quote the moſt candid and well informed author, is often hazardous. The heroes, who have juſt now driven the Auſtrians from their camp at Maubeuge, bear no more reſemblance to the poltroons who fled from Roſbach, than the preſent inhabitants of the United Provinces do to the intrepid aſſertors of liberty, who repulſed the duke of Alva.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound. Perſons of all ſects live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to the eſtabliſhed worſhip. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy; but that number is ſeldom or never complete. They are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon, in France, when the reigning pope was a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhoprics in Italy. The number of biſhops is fluctuating.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſition. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily acquired by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the great attention paid by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtyle of writing is moſt eſteemed.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſiccome in cielo coſi anche in terra; daci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i noſtri debiti, ſiccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori: e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciochè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] Livy is commonly placed at the head of the hiſtorians of ancient Rome. As an elegant and entertaining writer, he deſerves the higheſt praiſe; but his faults are extremely numerous. In common with moſt hiſtorians of thoſe times, he preſents to the reader, ſpeeches ſaid to have been pronounced, upon particular occaſions, by generals and ſtateſmen. Of theſe, not one in twenty has the ſmalleſt pretence to authenticity. He ſometimes begins one of his books, with a liſt of perhaps fifty or a hundred prodigies, which he alledges to have been obſerved at that particular juncture. He is very partial to the valour and virtues of his countrymen, which might perhaps be a neceſſary artifice to obtain their attention. He has many extravagant ſtories of all kinds; ſuch as that of Hannibal deſerting his camp, on the day before the battle of Cannæ, that he might ſeduce the Roman army into an ambuſcade. His tale of the Roman capitol being ſaved from the Gauls, by the cackling of geeſe, the tragical ſurrender of Saguntum, the crucifixion of Regulus, and ſome other paſſages of the ſame complexion, are tacitly or expreſsly contradicted by Polybius. About three-fourths of his hiſtory have been loſt. Had the remainder been abridged to half its preſent ſize, by the extruſion of what is evidently fabulous or nonſenſical, he would have deſerved a great part of thoſe unbounded encomiums,

with which he has been overloaded by every modern critic. Salluſt is a very different writer. His ſtyle is conciſe, nervous, and delightful, in a degree of which it is impoſſible to form a conception, without peruſing his original text. His portraits of Cato, Cæſar, Cataline, Sempronia, Sylla, and Jugurtha, may be read a thouſand times over with unwearied admiration. His deſcriptions of battles are likewiſe almoſt unrivalled. His harangues, however, are hardly more authentic than thoſe of Livy; and, after having peruſed his two hiſtories, an intelligent reader has numerous queſtions to aſk, which Salluſt has not reſolved. Cæſar is a much leſs artificial hiſtorian than either of the former. He ſeems to have related exactly what he believed to be true, excepting a natural partiality in favour of himſelf. He has neither the rapid ſublimity of Salluſt, nor the copious minuteneſs of Livy. But he is upon the whole, a very pleaſing writer. Indeed, the chief objection both to Cæſar and to almoſt every other hiſtorian, ancient and modern, is, that they vindicate the ſyſtem of war and conqueſt, and repreſent, as the patterns of human excellence, ambitious conquerors, who deſerve to be remembered by nothing but their crimes. To put books like thoſe of Cæſar and Livy, into the hand of a boy at ſchool, is the ſhorteſt and moſt certain method that can be deviſed, for the extirpation of ſympathy with the calamities of mankind. The obſervation may ſeem harſh, but is unqueſtionably juſt, that an hiſtory of the ſhambles of a butcher, if it ſhould ever be written, would be leſs dangerous to the morals of young men, than the great body of hiſtorical writings. This opinion is not advanced for the ſake of ſingularity, but from a conviction that it is abſolutely true. Had the firſt battle, ſince the exiſtence of the human ſpecies, been fought yeſterday, the narrative would have filled every eye with tears, and every heart with horror. But, as the ſyſtem of education now ſtands, we are taught, by the familiar peruſal of Cæſar, and other writers of that claſs, to hear, with almoſt as much indifference, of the maſſacre of two hundred thouſand people in a ſingle day, as if they had been only a neſt of hornets. Tacitus is another of the moſt diſtinguiſhed amongſt the Roman hiſtorians. He is remarkable for conciſe and ſtriking ſentences. His deſcriptions are frequently as pictureſque, as if drawn by the pencil of Shakeſpeare himſelf. He deſcribes, with the utmoſt freedom, the vices of his age. If he could have avoided a diſagreeable vein of affectation, both in ſtyle and ſentiment, he would have deſerved a much higher rank, than he is at preſent entitled to claim. Not more than a fourth or a fifth part of his works hath ſurvived the wreck of time, and even theſe are mutilated in ſome of the moſt intereſting paſſages. There are ſeveral other hiſtorians of ancient Rome, who have obtained the name of claſſics, and who poſſeſs conſiderable merit. Quintilian has left us two large volumes on rhetoric. The moſt curious part of his work is the critical account of a great number of Greek and Roman authors, of whom nothing, or very little, is now known, but what he has told us. Had his treatiſe conſiſted chiefly of ſuch materials, it muſt have formed a very precious repoſitory of literary knowledge. No writer has attracted more attention than Cicero, and he was undoubtedly a perſon of ſuperior talents. Yet, his orations contain an immenſe quantity of extraneous matter; and might, without injury to his fame, be condenſed, for the moſt part, into one-half, and ſometimes, into one-ſixth part of their preſent amplitude. He frequently digreſſes into the moſt egregious ſcurrility, and yet, he has been, a thouſand times dignified with the title of a conſumate maſter of eloquence. When we read his groſs invectives againſt Mark Anthony, which, for eighteen centuries, have been termed *divine* productions, it is not to be wondered at, that a perſon, ſuch as he deſcribes the Triumvir to be, ſhould embrace the firſt opportunity to involve him in the general proſcriptions. His vanity is infinitely tireſome, and ſo prominent a feature in his character, as to have excited, on a peruſal of many of his productions, eſpecially his epiſtles, the ridicule of ſchoolboys. He was, upon every occaſion, diſpoſed to pour

out a torrent of words. A modern orator, who ſhould form himſelf upon the exact model of Cicero, would ſcarcely be heard a ſecond time, in an American congreſs. The poets of Rome have, in general, compoſed their works in a ſtyle that approaches much more cloſely to truth, and to nature, than ſome of her principal hiſtorians. Plautus is the moſt ancient Latin poet, whoſe writings have deſcended to modern times. He compoſed comedies, of which twenty are preſerved, though with ſome mutilations. He appears to have been a writer of very great genius. Many paſſages in his plays diſcover a remarkable vigour of ſtyle, and impetuoſity of imagination. His prologues are commonly admirable; and if he is often very much inferior to himſelf, the ſame exception lies againſt the dramatic writers of all ages. Terence has received a profuſion of panegyric. He is elegant, but feeble. We have no third comic writer of Rome extant. Lucretius is as much a metaphyſician as a poet. There is in his verſes a kind of ſimplicity that cannot be deſcribed, and which ſeems peculiar to himſelf. Catullus is likewiſe diſtinguiſhed by ſimplicity and ſweetneſs of verſification. He wrote a great number of ſhort poems. Some of theſe are pleaſing and pathetic. Others, ſuch as that inſcribed to Julius Cæſar, upon his invaſion of Britain, are polluted with the moſt ſhocking obſcenity. Yet, mr. Hume affirms, that in this author, "each line, each word, has its merit." Of Virgil and Horace, as they are in the hands of every body, it is perhaps unneceſſary to offer any account. The former, though certainly a very great poet, was, if poſſible, a greater plagiariſt. He not only borrowed from Homer, without end, but from Theocritus and many other writers; and had his poetical predeceſſors deſcended entire to poſterity, it would, moſt likely, have been difficult to find in his whole writings, ten lines together that were fairly his own. In all the modern editions of this author, except a very few, there is omitted a poem that he wrote on the death of a fly, which is aſcribed to him by Martial, who certainly was a competent judge of its authenticity. It is of conſiderable length, and ought, ſurely, to have received more notice than it has met with. Critics have harraſſed the world with objections to the plan of his epic poem, but they have forgotten its greateſt fault. For, as Cheſterfield has remarked, Eneas, as an unprovoked invader, had no juſt pretenſions to piety. Horace is, perhaps, the moſt popular writer that has deſcended from antiquity. Dr. Blair, in his lectures on rhetoric, is of opinion, that every one of his odes, has very great beauties. The reverend critic ſhould have recollected, that ſeveral of them contain nothing but indecency. Quintilian, in his treatiſe, has made a very ſingular miſtake, in ſaying, that the Greeks were unacquainted with ſatires like thoſe of Horace; and this fancy hath, as uſual, been adopted by all the ſucceeding critics. In the remains of the minor Greek poets, there are ſeveral pieces exactly in the ſame ſtyle; ſuch as the ſatire of Theocritus, on the diſcouragement of men of letters, that of Simonides againſt women, and many others. Propertius and Tibullus are juſtly celebrated, as writers of elegy. Ovid was, it appears, the moſt fertile of all the poets of ancient Rome. His metamorphoſes are one of the moſt extraordinary productions, in any language, and will bear inceſſant peruſal. It has been ſtrangely ſaid, numberleſs times, that his genius declined, when he was baniſhed from Rome by Auguſtus Cæſar, and that his verſes from Pontus are much inferior to his preceding compoſitions. A reader, who is willing to judge for himſelf, muſt diſcover that his epiſtle to Auguſtus from the place of his exile, is a maſterpiece of eloquence. Statius is a very indifferent poet; but Juvenal is, in himſelf, worth a whole nation of ordinary ſatiriſts. The ninth ſatire is not equal to the others; and the ſixteenth is ſaid to be ſpurious. The reſt of them exhibit nothing but unvaried excellence. His deſcriptions of the luxury, and the vices, of his countrymen, exhibit the moſt diſguſting and deteſtable picture of human depravity, that ever exiſted. Claudian is diſtinguiſhed, in his ſatires, by a copiouſneſs of ſentiment, a fluency of expreſſion, and, above all, by a ferocity of contempt, which can hardly be

equalled and never will be excelled. His address to the emperor Honorius, on his wedding night, cannot fail to discompose the muscles of the gravest reader. Ausonius was, perhaps, the last Roman writer who deserved the title of a poet. Some passages in his works are beautiful. There are several other Latin poets, some of whom well deserve a perusal. Persius has received much more than his due proportion of praise. In the original text, he is almost unintelligible; but Dryden, by an excellent translation, has converted him into a pleasing and instructive poet. In modern ages, Italy has produced a great variety of writers of Latin verse; but, perhaps, there is none of them that has approached to the voluptuous sweetness of the *Basia* of *Nicholaus Secundus;* and it has been frequently admitted, that they can oppose no rival to the universal excellence of Buchanan. Mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated Father Paul, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians, by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a polltical writer. His comedies have much merit; but the wily artifices of his political system have been generally and justly reprobated. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most correct in point of style. He was a very natural painter of life and manners; but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent; but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces, set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions approaching in some degree to the classics themselves. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but in their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation by his pencil, and still stands at the head of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarotti excelled at once in painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perusia.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not, like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian state has distinct interests, trade, and forms of government) we shall be obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming on idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or, as he is now styled, king of SARDINIA, taking his

royal title from that Island, is a powerful prince in Italy.* His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe ; but the country of Savoy is mountainous, and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple, honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family revenues, is above two millions of dollars ; out of which he maintains fifteen thousand men in time of peace. During a war, he can bring into the field forty thousand men. The aggrandizement of the present Sardinian sovereign is chiefiy owing to England. Savoy is celebrated for its breed of mules : and Piedmont raises large quantities of silk. Its wines are highly esteemed. The Sardinians are among the nations combined against the French. From such documents as have been received in this country, it seems probable, though we do not assert it positively, that the aggression on this nation by the French troops, was not sufficiently justifiable. Suspicions arose, and hostile preparations were made on both sides. These fanned the spark to a flame. The French charged the Sardinian king, with a design of joining the confederates. The republican troops poured into Savoy, and in a few days the king found himself stripped of almost the whole of his continental dominions. The French were afterwards obliged to evacuate a part of their conquests ; but according to appearances, at the date of the last European advices, the republican standard is likely to be again hoisted throughout Savoy.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, is a considerable state, and formerly, when under the government of its own dukes, gave law to Italy. The fertility and beauty of the country, are almost incredible Milan, the capital, and its citadel, are very strong. There is in this city, a magnificent cathedral, in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy is above thirteen hundred thousand dollars annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of thirty thousand men The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the exports of Milan are very inconsiderable. So that the revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much augmented. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Austrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA has sunk from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among the nobility and citizens. Genoa is a superb city, and contains several magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria†, and Durazzo. The inhabitants, of distinction, dress in black, in a plain manner. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa has been said to contain about one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants ; but some writers greatly diminish that number. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six gallies. The chief safety of this republic, consists in the jealousy of other European powers ; because, to any one of them, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

*. Victor-Amadeus-Maria, king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, born June 26, 1726 ; married, April 12, 1750, to Maria-Antonietta-Ferdinanda, infanta of Spain ; ascended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their issue are,

1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.

2. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753 ; married to the count de Provence.

† Andrew Doria, the head of his family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468 : he was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists. He lived to the age of ninety-three, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

The common people are wretched. The soil of its territory is barren. Near the sea, some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility. The chief person is called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no person can be promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years, a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable, during five years, of holding the same office again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors. All the orders of the government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is a state celebrated on account of its former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on seventy-two islands, at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent, by a marshy lake, of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate; and which forms its principal defence. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence. The citizens seem to have lost the taste for painting and architecture. The constitution of the republic was originally democratical. The magistrates, for one hundred and fifty years, were chosen by a general assembly of the people, but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees, a body of hereditary nobility was formed; progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete aristocracy was at length established, upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting, in the whole to two thousand five hundred; each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. This council elects a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner, by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to leave the city, without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college is the supreme cabinet council of the state. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, convenes the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council often takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is, in the highest degree, despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding, without appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being exempted To these three inquisitors, is given the right of employing spies, and issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions, they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace; and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and, of course, they may command access to the house of every individual in the state. They continue in office only one year, but are not reponsible afterwards for their conduct whilst in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners who visit them. This statement is copied from the London

edition; and was probably just, when originally written. A great, but gradual revolution has since taken place. Mr. Young, who was in Venice about two or three years ago, gives a different account. A person, to whom he was introduced, spoke as follows. "Foreigners are strangely apt to entertain false ideas of this republic; and to think, that the same principles govern it at present, as for some centuries past. You may converse as freely as Venice, as at London. You have heard much of spies, and executions, and drownings. But every circumstance at Venice has changed, and greatly too, even in twenty years."

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his state-barge, attended by the barges of all the nobility, is a most superb exhibition. The inhabitants of Venice are said, by mr. Young, to be an hundred and fifty thousand. The convenience and grandeur of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are striking. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid about five hundred bridges, the greatest part of which are of stone. The Venetians have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners. That of the state is said to amount to eight millions of Italian florins annually, each above one-third of a dollar. Out of this fund are defrayed the expense of the state, and the pay of the army, which, in time of peace, consists of sixteen thousand troops, always commanded by a foreign general, and ten thousand militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolence of the piratical states of Barbary, and in this laudable warfare, they have frequently signalized themselves.

In ecclesiastical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs. The authority of one extends over all the provinces, but neither of them has much power. Both are chosen by the senate.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, and have an uncommon relish for humour. They are, in general, well made; and many fine, manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those delineated by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and an easy address. The common people are sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. It is the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival. Hence an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the carnival; and eight or nine theatres are then open.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, and some others. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremasco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The countries subject to Venice, are not oppressed. The senate has found, that mild treatment and good usage are the best policy, and more effectual than armies in preventing revolts;—an important discovery, which few governments have made, or, at least, allowed to guide their conduct.

Florence is the capital of TUSCANY; a country, now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after having been long held by the house of Medicis. This family made Florence the cabinet of an immense collection of valuable, rich, and masterly productions in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting, and sculpture. The city is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beau-

ties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed ; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents ; ſo that Florence, in every reſpect, is reckoned, after Rome, the firſt city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medicis ſtands in an apartment called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe, mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. This beautiful city ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vine-yards, and delightful villas, and is divided by the Arno. It is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca ; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar-windows, and ſometimes even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. From the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, ſince emperor, to this duchy, great reforms have been introduced, both into the government and manufactures. Theſe reforms reflect the utmoſt luſtre on the character of Leopold. Among others, his abolition of the abominable practice of affording ſanctuaries in churches to murderers, a practice that originated in the moſt perverted ideas of religion, and was pregnant with the moſt deſtructive conſequences to ſociety, deſerves to be moſt particularly and honorably mentioned. Beſides this, he has carried the theory of the divine Beccaria, on capital puniſhments, into practice. We may ſay of him, as duke of Tuſcany, that he was one of the very few monarchs, who merited the ſincere applauſes of mankind. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring into the field, upon occaſion, thirty thouſand fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above five hundred thouſand pounds a year. The other principal towns in Tuſcany, are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna. The firſt and laſt are much decayed ; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford an agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many vallies on the land ſide. Here all nations, even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at forty thouſand, among whom are ſaid to be twenty thouſand Jews. They live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a proſperous condition, for the greater part of the commerce of this city paſſes through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden; ſo that, though they do not exceed one hundred and twenty thouſand, their annual revenue amounts to nearly four hundred thouſand dollars. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about forty thouſand inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom ; for, in ſuch a ſituation, an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is impreſſed on their coin, on the city gates, and on all their public buildings. It has been remarked by lord Gardenſtone, and ſeveral other travellers, that the inhabitants of this little republic, have an air of cheefulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. MARINO is a political curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom. The inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for one thousand three hundred years. They are under the protection of the pope; and their inoffensive manners, with the small value of their territory, have preserved their freedom. Their numbers do not exceed five thousand.

The duchy of PARMA, with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. Parma is a bishop's see, and has an university. Some of its magnificent churches were painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's revenues are supposed to exceed four hundred and fifty thousand dollars a year. The city of Parma is supposed to contain fifty thousand inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, producing to its dukes five hundred thousand crowns a year is now much decayed. The government is annexed to that of the Milonese. The capital is one of the strongest cities in Europe, and contains about sixteen thousand inhabitants who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1715, this duchy was incorporated, with that of Milan, into one province which is called Austrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA, formerly Mutina, is still governed by its own duke the head of the house of Este. He is absolute within his own dominions, which are fertile. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His territories are far from being flourishing, though very improveable. They were ravaged in the last war in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the metropolis of the world, lies in the centre of Italy. That region, which, under the masters of the world, formed a terrestrial paradise, interspersed with magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, has long been converted into noxious, pestilential marshes and quagmires. The Campagna di Roma, which formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords a scanty subsistence to a few miserable peasants. The pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling: others rate it much higher. But this is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions. His accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished, by the suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and by the measures taken by the catholic powers for preventing the great drain of money from their country to Rome. The taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state might, between want and laziness, perish, did not the fertility of the soil afford them subsistence. But the poverty, and sloth of the lower ranks, do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes

affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects; and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendor of churches accounts for the miſery of the people.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. The city ſtands upon the Tiber, an inconſiderable river, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, could not reſiſt a regular ſiege. The city ſtands upon the ruins of ancient Rome, and is, therefore, much higher; ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to one hundred and forty-three thouſand; and it is likely that at preſent they are not leſs numerous.

The pope has his guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces, he governs by legates and vice-legates. He has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is, next to Rome, the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The government is under a legate, who is always a cardinal, and holds his office but three years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably than the other ſubjects of the pope. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory, and which ſtill exhibit the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate, even till about the beginning of the ſixteenth century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, ANCONA, and many other ſtates and cities, illuſtrious in former times, is now to be ſeen only in their ruins, and in ancient hiſtory.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY is called the king of the two Sicilies, the name of Sicily being common to both. He poſſeſſes the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 ſquare miles. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The Apennine runs through it from north to ſouth, and its ſurface is eſtimated at three thouſand five hundred ſquare leagues. The air is hot, and the ſoil fruitful in every production of Italy. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, is very delightful; but Veſuvius often threatens the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil abounds in venomous, or noxious inſects and reptiles. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population. They are moſtly five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top. On the roofs are numbers of flower-vaſes, or fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are handſome. No ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo, at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom. No inquiſition is eſtabliſhed

in Naples. The preſent revenues of the king amount to above three millions of dollars a year. The exports are legumes, hemp, aniſeed, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous, but generally poor nobility, compriſing princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains at leaſt three hundred and fifty thouſand inhabitants. Among theſe are about thirty thouſand perſons, of whom the greater part have no dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any ſort of ſhelter which they can find; and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which laſts for ſeveral weeks, they reſort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crouds, like ſheep in a penfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caverns and chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing; others carry burdens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets, ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power, for a very ſmall recompenſe. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is, in ſome degree, ſupplied by the ſoup and bread diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendor. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the bombaſt of their titles. According to mr. Swinburne, luxury, of late, has advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap; but hair, plainly dreſt, is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen, is nearly laid aſide. Expenſe and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppreſſed with a load of debt; the working part of the community generally ſpend the price of their labour before they receive it; and the citizen is reduced to great parſimony, in his houſe-keeping, to anſwer the demands of external ſhow. The nobility, in general are well ſerved, and live comfortably. They dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of ſtate, and miniſters, keep ſumptuous tables, to which ſtrangers and others have frequent invitations.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ; ſuch as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries. The ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is ſtill marked out to poſterity by the name of the "field of blood." Taranto, a city once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that over-hang the bay, and has, of all the places in the kingdom, the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous. The fall of the Grecian empire, under the Turks, reduced it to its preſent ſtate of inactivity and poverty. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento. Here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable, but a Gothic cathedral. The town was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar. Part of the wall ſtill remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in

1783, but not deſtroyed. Of ſixteen thouſand inhabitants, only one hundred and twenty-ſix loſt their lives. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, of which the greateſt force ſeems to have been felt near that ſpot, at Caſel Nuova, and at Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally, or in part, overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins.

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other places, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and fertility, are greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, reſemble thoſe of Italy. The people are computed at four millions. Sicily, it is ſaid, was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become an iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January, the ſhade is refreſhing; chilly winds are only felt for a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient. The only appearance of Winter is near the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations, are extremely numerous here. The buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would be a delightful reſidence. There are great numbers of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of the iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female ſex. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain one hundred and twenty thouſand inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town, in all Sicily, which is lighted at night at the public expenſe. It carries on a conſiderable trade. The dead at Palermo are never buried; but their bodies are carried to the Capuchin convent, where, after the funeral ſervice is performed, they are dried in a ſtove, heated by a compoſition of lime, which makes the ſkin adhere to the bones. They are then placed erect, in niches, and faſtened to the wall by the back or neck. A piece of coarſe drab is thrown over the ſhoulders, and round the waiſt, and their hands are tied together, holding a piece of paper with their epitaph, which contains ſimply their names, ages, and the time when they died.

Meſſina was formerly a place of conſiderable trade, and, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake, a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city, and the port, was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings, called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent, which extended along the water ſide, for above two thouſand yards, adorned with pilaſters and pediments, and a grand eſplanade open to the ſea, which at once formed a noble pier, and a delightful public walk, flanked by a fort at each end. The houſes were built with great taſte, all four ſtories high, and nearly alike. Of this beautiful and magnificent range, only the outſide ſhell remains; the reſt, with all the town, except one or two of the ſtrongeſt churches, were entirely deſtroyed; but out of thirty thouſand perſons, the ſuppoſed population of the city, only ſeven hundred are ſaid to have periſhed.

The king of the Two Sicilies is among the enemies of the French republic. He has lately ſent two thouſand of his troops to Toulon, where four thouſand more are expected, to aſſiſt in defending that place againſt the attacks of the republicans. This is the only inſtance, in which he has actively co-operated with the allies.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about one hundred and fifty miles S. W. of Leghorn, and has ſeven cities or towns.

Its capital, Cagliari, has an univerſity, and is the ſeat of the viceroys, containing about fifteen thouſand inhabitants. An attempt was made by the French to effect a landing here, at an early period of their war with the king of Sardinia. But they were very unſucceſsful, having been defeated with conſiderable loſs. It is thought that the Sardinian monarch's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed five thouſand pounds ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. The air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the north, and therefore, it was a place of exile for the victims of Roman deſpotiſm. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht, it was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the houſe of Savoy. Mr. Arthur Young received the following account, as to the preſent ſtate of this iſland, from a Scots officer in the Sardinian ſervice.

" The *intemperia* is ſo prevalent in Summer, from the quantity of evaporating water leaving mud expoſed to the ſun, as to be death to a ſtranger; but in Winter, it is a good climate. The ſoil is wonderfully rich and fertile; but vaſt plains, that would produce any thing, are uncultivated. He has paſt one line fifty miles by thirty, all plain and the land good, yet *without one houſe, and moſtly a neglected deſart!* The people are wretched and ignorant. There are diſtricts, he has been informed, where there are olives, and the fruit left rotting under the trees, for want of knowing how to make oil. In general, there are no roads, and no inns. When a traveller or other perſon, goes into the iſland, he is recommended from convent to convent, or curé to curé, ſome of whom are at their eaſe. You are ſure to be well entertained, and at no other expenſe than a trifle to the ſervants." This deplorable ſituation is not aſcribed to government, which has exerted itſelf to remove the evil, but ariſes from the feudal privileges of the nobles.

The iſland of CORSICA lies between the gulf of Genoa, and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty againſt the attempts of the Genoeſe, and afterwards, of the French, than by any advantages it enjoys from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and its rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants, by a late cenſus, amount to one hundred and twenty-nine thouſand. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of tolerable ſtrength. Some other towns in the iſland, poſſeſſed by the patriots, appear to have been but weakly fortified.

The celebrated Paoli, who ſo nobly ſignalized himſelf, in defence of his country, in its ſtruggles for independence, before and after it was ſold to the French king, is now exerting his endeavours to ſhake off the ſubjection of the iſland to the French republic.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an iſland memorable as the reſidence of Tiberius Ceſar. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano Capri, the largeſt village of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices, that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long, as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground, that runs acroſs the iſland, and forms one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. Each of theſe is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and cornfields, which afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains.

Here are ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and a biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract, ariſes a hill, which, in the reign of Tiberius, was probably covered with buildings; ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory; from which there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it, the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite, is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide, the bay of Naples.

The iſle of MALTA is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in fifteen degrees E. lon. and forty-five degrees N. lat. ſixty miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily. It is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot. The whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock, covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which yields excellent fruits, vegetables, and garden-productions of all kinds. This iſland, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and they were alſo to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors. They are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number one thouſand. Five hundred are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in the ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons, are to make a perſonal appearance. They had once a ſeminary in England, which was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII. Their chief town, Valetta, or Malta, its harbour, and their whole iſland, are ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of September, there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in memory of the Turks having raiſed the ſiege on that day in 1563, after an aſſault of four months, leaving their artillery, &c. behind. Mr. Brydone ſays, that on one ſide of this iſland, there is a large road cut through a rock, which runs to the brink of a precipice hanging over the ſea. He infers, that when this road was made, the iſland had extended much farther on that quarter, and hath ſince been ſunk by an earthquake.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the introduction, to which we refer the reader for its ancient hiſtory. The narrative of its modern hiſtory may be commenced with Charlemagne, who died in 814. Under his ſucceſſors, his empire was, in a ſhort time, entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Lewis le Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany. His grandſon, Bernard, reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But Bernard having loſt his life, and Lewis himſelf dying in 840, the dominions were, once more, divided among Lothario, Lewis, and Charles, the ſons of Lewis. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Italy was ſoon after ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho re-united it to the imperial dominions. This country afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and emperors; it was harraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length, various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads. Savoy and Piedmont fell in time to the counts of Maurienne. They were anceſtors to the preſent king of Sardinia. His grandfather obtained the royal title by virtue of the quadruple alliance formed in 1718. This title was but a ſorry compenſation for the loſs of the iſland of Sicily, which the allies, with George the firſt at their head, wreſted from him,

without provocation, without a pretence of juſtice, and in defiance of the moſt ſolemn treaty formed only ſix years before, by three of theſe four allies, England, Holland, and the emperor, with this very prince. Inſtead of Sicily, they gave him Sardinia; and as it was in all reſpects of far leſs value than the former iſland, they ſubjoined a royal title.

The duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany. It was governed by deputies till the year 1240, when the diſtinctions took place, of the Guelphs, who were partiſans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were attached to the emperor. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany, to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties, by turns. Faction, at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in reality governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, ſhared with the Venitians, in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. The revenues of Coſmo, in ready money, exceeded thoſe of any ſovereign prince in Europe; and enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſupreme power. Pope Pius V. in 1570, gave one of his deſcendants, the title of great duke of Tuſcany, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief to the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, father of the late emperor, inſtead of the duchy of Lorrain, which was, by treaty, ceded to France. Several ſhips, of very conſiderable force, are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts, to prevent the depredations of the Barbary rovers and pirates.

Florence has lately witneſſed one of the moſt extraordinary effuſions of diplomatic inſolence that ſtands on record. The preſent archduke, deſirous of enjoying and imparting to his ſubjects, the ineſtimable bleſſings of peace and neutrality, has ſtudied to avoid entering into the preſent deſtructive war, and therefore obſerved great caution to avoid giving any reaſonable cauſe of offence to the belligerent powers on either ſide. But lord Hervey, the Britiſh reſident at this court, in a tone not very different from that of a maſter to his ſervant, informed him, by a letter dated in May laſt, "that the continuance of his neutrality *muſt* depend on the manner in which the allied powers ſhould conſider it, and on the opinion which they ſhould entertain of the juſtice of his conduct;" that is, if the allied powers ſhould, in their mercy, ſee fit to ſpread the horrors of war into Tuſcany, the ſovereign and his people muſt as tamely and ſubmiſſively acquieſce, as any of the ſubjects of thoſe powers. If any extenuation could be offered for ſuch a flagrant outrage on the rights of independent nations, it might be obſerved, that this extraordinary affair happened ſoon after the treachery of Dumourier had elevated the aſpiring hopes of the allies, to cruſh the French without delay. To keep pace with the aſtoniſhing occurrences of the preſent times, requires to have the pen conſtantly employed. Since the above remarks were written, diſpatches have arrived from mr. Pinckney, the American ambaſſador at London, informing the preſident, that the archduke has been actually forced to join the general confederacy, and declare war againſt the French.

No country has undergone greater changes of government than Sicily. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans, under Tancred, drove out the Saracens, and by their connexions with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in ignorance, a reſpectable monarchy. About the year 1166, the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line was broken, and Naples and Sicily came at laſt, into the poſſeſſion of the French. The houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards, under the Auſtrian line, was oppreſſive, and gave riſe to a revolt in the year 1647, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman. His ſucceſs was ſurpriſing. He forced the Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitation of body and mind, and was put to death at the head of his followers. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Auſtrian line opened a new ſource of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. In conſequence of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, ſon of the king of Spain, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out, in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies. This was followed by a very bloody campaign, which terminated in a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it was found that his eldeſt ſon was, by nature, incapacitated for reigning. His ſecond ſon being heir apparent to the Spaniſh monarchy, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchefs of Auſtria.

Milan had been ſubject to various maſters. At laſt, about the year 1525, the country came into the poſſeſſion of Charles the fifth. He gave it to his ſon Philip II. It remained with the crown of Spain, till the year 1706, when the French troops, who protected the grandſon of Lewis the fourteenth, as competitor for the throne of Spain, were driven out of Italy by the Imperialiſts. Milan was, at the peace of Utrecht, confirmed to the emperor, and continued in poſſeſſion of Auſtria, till the year 1743. At that time, ſhe was diſpoſſeſſed of this duchy, which was ſeized by the Spaniards. But the emperor having ſince ceded Naples and Sicily to Spain, Milan was reſtored to him, and is governed for him by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly ſubject to the family of Gonzaga. They adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it. Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchy of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages. The duchy has conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee, and univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches were painted by the famous Correggis. The preſent duke of Parma, is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, ſome years paſt, the ſeat of a bloody war, between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia, are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither, the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy; and it is ſaid, that his revenues exceed 450 000 dollars per annum, a ſum rather exaggerated.—The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople, and held it for ſome time. They were brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the league of Cambray, in 1509; but were ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it deprived them of the India trade. The Turks ſucceſſively took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and, ſo late as the year 1715, they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time, diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom, or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected by, and ſometimes ſubjected to, the French, or imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magiſtrate, uſed to be crowned king of Corſica. That iſland has ſince been ceded to the French by the Genoeſe, and is at preſent the ſcene of a war between the natives, ſupported by England, on the one ſide, and France on the other. The ſucceſsful effort made by the Genoeſe in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war of 1748, evinces the effects of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate. Attempts have been made by the Britiſh and Spaniſh combined fleets to compel them to enter into the confederacy againſt the French republic, which they very bravely reſiſted. If we are to credit the late advices from Europe, thoſe fleets captured ſome French veſſels in the very port of Genoa.

The hiſtory of the papacy is cloſely interwoven with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid in the cloſe of the eleventh century, by Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy. She bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to pope Gregory VII. From that era, till the reformation, the popes had prodigious influence in the temporal concerns of moſt of the princes of Europe.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The Jeſuits, who were a very powerful ſupport to it, have been expelled from France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and are but juſt tolerated in other Roman catholic countries. The pope himſelf is treated by the princes of his church with little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſor of a temporal principality.

John Angelo Braſchi, the preſent pontiff, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	260	between	81 and 86 eaſt longitude, from Philadelphia.
Breadth	100		46 and 48 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country is bounded by Alſace and Swabia, in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Conſtance, Tyrol, and Trent, on the eaſt; by Italy, on the ſouth; and by France, on the weſt.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhauſen; 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account that we have of the dimenſions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Switzerland. Countries Names.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Calviniſts.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
	Schaffhauſen	140	23	9	Schaffhauſen
	Baſil	240	21	18	BASIL 47-40 N. lat. 7-40 E. long.
R. catholics.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne
	Underwalden	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
	Suiſſe	250	27	13	Suiſſe
	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
	Soleure	253	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn
Calviniſts and catholics.	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts and catholics.	Baden	216	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten
	Mellingen				Mellingen
	Rheinthal	40	20	5	Rheinck
	Thurgau	119	18	11	Flowanfield
	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano
	Locarno				Locarno
	Mendris				Mendris
	Maggia				Maggia.
	Total	7533			

Allies of the Switzers. Countries names.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Calviniſts.	Griſons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Griſons, Calv. and catholics.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	360	27	19	Sondrio
	Valteline				
Calviniſts.	Tockenburg	168	27	8	Liechtenſteg
	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Roman cath.	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
	Baſſe	270	13	16	Delſperg
	St. Gall	144	20	10	St. Gall
	Total	12,984			Mulhauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. This is a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, which form an amphitheatre of more than one hundred miles. The froſts are ſevere in winter, and the hills ſometimes are covered with ſnow throughout the year. In ſummer, the diverſity of the ſoil, renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons. On one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies are warm, fruitful, and well cultivated. Nothing can be more delightful than the ſummer months

in this charming country. It is ſubject to rains and tempeſts, for which reaſon, public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of crops. The water of Switzerland is excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in cataracts.

There is no country, wherein the advantages of perſevering induſtry are more remarkably conſpicuous, than in Switzerland. In paſſing over the mountainous parts, the traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks, formerly barren, planted with vines, or abounding with rich paſture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the ſides of ſteep precipices. The inhabitants ſeem to have ſurmounted every obſtruction, which ſoil, ſituation, and climate, had thrown in their way, and to have ſpread fertility over various ſpots of the country, conſigned, by nature, to everlaſting barrenneſs. The bottoms of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, conſiſting, almoſt entirely, of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ice or ſnow. The vallies, between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains, appear like ſo many ſmooth, frozen lakes; and from theſe mountains, vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. In ſome parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation; in others, the tranſitions are abrupt, and ſtriking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with woods, and ſtudded all over with hamlets, cottages, above the clouds, and paſtures which appear ſuſpended in the air, exhibit the moſt delightful landſcape that can be conceived; in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and ſnow. In ſhort, Switzerland abounds with highly pictureſque ſcenes, and the ſublimeſt exhibitions of nature in her moſt awful and tremendous forms.

GLACIERS.] No ſubject in natural hiſtory, is more curious than the origin of the immenſe fields of ice, commonly called glaciers. If a perſon could be conveyed to ſuch an elevation, as to embrace, at one view, the Alps of Switzerland, Savoy, and Dauphine, he would behold a vaſt aſſemblage of mountains, interſected by numerous vallies, and compoſed of various parallel branches, the higheſt occupying the centre, and others gradually diminiſhing, in proportion to their diſtance from that centre.

The moſt elevated, or central range, would appear briſtled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in ſummer, with ice and ſnow, in all parts that are not abſolutely perpendicular. On each ſide, he would diſcover deep vallies clothed with verdure, abounding with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers. In conſidering theſe objects with greater attention, he would remark, that the central chain is compoſed of elevated peaks and ridges, whoſe ſummits are overſpread with ſnow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting thoſe parts that are extremely ſteep, are covered with ſnow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and ſpaces between them, are filled with immenſe fields of ice, terminating in cultivated vallies.

Theſe immenſe fields of ice uſually reſt on an inclined plain; being puſhed forwards by the preſſure of their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe crevices; and preſent the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic ſhapes, obſerved at all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr Coxe deſcribes the method of travelling over theſe glaciers. His party had each of them a long pole ſpiked with iron; and, to ſecure them from ſlipping, the guides faſtened to their feet, ſmall bars of iron, having four ſmall ſpikes. The difficulty of croſſing theſe vallies of ice, ariſes from the immenſe chaſms. They rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them; and the great length of time before theſe reached the bottom, gave ſome conception of their depth; which, in ſome places, is not leſs than five hundred feet. Such a body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chaſms, reſembles a lake inſtantly frozen in the midſt of a violent ſtorm.

MOUNTAINS.] Mont Blanc, or the White mountain, is diſtinguiſhed by having its ſummits and ſides clothed with ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. Mr. De Luc eſtimates the height of this mountain, above the level of the ſea, at two thouſand three hundred and ninety-one and one-third French toiſes, or fifteen thouſand three hundred and four Engliſh feet. Sir George Shuckburgh ſtates it at fifteen thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty-two feet, which gives a difference of only three hundred and fifty-eight feet. The Peak of Teneriffe has been frequently ſuppoſed the higheſt land of the old hemiſphere. Mont Blanc, however, is of much more conſiderable elevation,

	Feet.
This mountain is above the level of the ſea, by ſir George Shuckburgh's menſuration.	15,662
The Peak of Teneriffe, according to Feuille,	13,248
Ætna, according to ſir George Shuckburgh,	10,954
Canigou, the higheſt of the Pyrenees,	9,222
Ben-nevis, the higheſt mountain in Scotland,	4,387
Veſuvius, according to M. de Sauſſure,	3,900
Snowden, in Wales,	3,555

The ſummit of Mont Blanc was deemed inacceſſible till Dr. Pacard, in 1786, aſcended it. The ſame journey was ſoon after undertaken by M. de Sauſſure, of Geneva, on the firſt of Auguſt, 1787. He ſet out, accompanied by a ſervant and eighteen guides, to carry a tent, proviſions, inſtruments, &c. M. de Sauſſure paſſed the firſt night at the top of the mountain of la Cote, ſituated to the ſouth of the priory; and ſeven hundred and ſeventy-nine toiſes above the village. To this place, there is no trouble or danger; the aſcent is either on turf or on rock; and it is eaſily accompliſhed in five or ſix hours.

On the ſecond day, the glacier of la Cote is to be paſſed, which is croſſed by wide, deep, and irregular crevices. Theſe are frequently impaſſible but over bridges of ſnow, ſometimes very ſlight, and ſuſpended over deep abyſſes. A guide narrowly eſcaped periſhing in one of theſe. He went in the evening, with two others, to reconnoitre the paſſage. Fortunately they had taken the precaution of faſtening themſelves together with cords. The ſnow gave way in the middle of a wide and deep crevice, wherein the man was ſuſpended between his two companions, by whom he was with difficulty drawn out. At four o'clock in the afternoon of the ſecond day, M. de Sauſſure's party again encamped, one thouſand four hundred and fifty-five toiſes above the priory, one thouſand nine hundred and ninety-five above the ſea, ninety toiſes higher than the peak of Teneriffe. Here they ſoon felt the rarity of the air. The barometer was down to 17 inches 10 lines 29-32. Thoſe hardy men, to whom the march of ſeven or eight hours, which they had juſt made, was no ſort of fatigue, had ſcarcely thrown up five or ſix ſpadefuls of ſnow, to prepare for fixing the tent, before they were utterly unable to proceed, without reſting every moment. Sauſſure himſelf was quite exhauſted with fatigue, merely in obſerving with his meteorological inſtruments. They were troubled with an inceſſant thirſt, which they had no means of allaying, but by melting the ſnow. From the midſt of this plain, encloſed in part by the higheſt ſummit of Mont Blanc, ſcarcely any thing is to be ſeen but ſnow, pure, and of a dazzling whiteneſs, forming on the higheſt pikes, a moſt ſingular contraſt with the ſky, almoſt black, of thoſe elevated regions. No living creature is to be ſeen; no appearance of vegetation. It is the abode of cold and ſilence.

The guides, fearful of cold, cloſed the openings of the tent carefully; but Sauſſure ſuffered ſo much from heat, and want of freſh air, that he went out during the night, in order to breathe. He found the moon ſhining with aſtoniſhing brightneſs,

in the midſt of an ebon ſky, while Jupiter ſhone equally bright from behind the loftieſt pike to the eaſt of Mont Blanc. As ſoon as it was light, they found the thermometer three degrees below the freezing point. On the third day, at about eleven o'clock, they ſafely arrived at the ſummit. There is no plain; but it is a long ridge nearly horizontal, in a direction from eaſt to weſt. This ridge is ſo narrow, that two perſons cannot walk a-breaſt on it; eſpecially at the weſt end, where it reſembles the roof of a houſe. In this ſtate of awful elevation, as M. de Sauſſure was putting his inſtruments in order to obſerve with them, he was obliged every moment to interrupt his obſervations, in order to take breath. The barometer was, on the ſummit, down to 16 inches one line, ſo that the air was only of about half the common denſity. It was thence neceſſary to ſupply the defect of denſity by more frequent inſpirations. This accelerated the motion of the blood, and the more, becauſe the arteries no longer ſuſtained their ordinary preſſure, inſomuch, that the party were all in a fever. Sauſſure continued on the ſummit of Mont Blanc till half an hour paſt three in the afternoon, during which time he carefully made ſome curious experiments. They all returned ſafe with their eyes and faces uninjured, which was owing to the precaution of having put black crape over their faces. Others, who had gone up before them, returned almoſt blind, and with their ſkin terribly burnt by the reflection of the ſnow.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces cattle, ſheep, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plumbs, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and moſt of the cantons are well provided with timber. In ſome of the higher and more inacceſſible parts of the Alps, are found the bouquetin and the chamois; whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are much ſubject to pleuriſies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which are all over white, ſo that, in winter, they are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. The white hare ſeldom quits his rocky reſidence. Here are alſo yellow and white foxes, which, in winter, ſometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about two millions of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and for their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are their moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics. A very ſtriking proof of the honeſty of this people is mentioned by mr. Coxe; who ſays, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each ſide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are ſeveral ranges of ſmall ſhops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked. Any paſſengers, who wiſh to become purchaſers, enter the ſhops, take away the merchandiſe, and depoſit the price, which the owners come for in the evening. They are likewiſe a very

enlightened nation. Their common people are more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries. A taſte for literature is very prevalent among thoſe who are in better circumſtances, and even among many of the loweſt rank; and a genuine and artleſs good breeding is conſpicuous in the Swiſs gentry. On the firſt entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but obſerve the air of content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanlineſs of the houſes, and of the people, is peculiarly ſtriking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced, which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſions of deſpotic government. Even the Swiſs cottages convey the livelieſt image of cleanlineſs, eaſe, and ſimplicity, and cannot but ſtrongly impreſs upon the obſerver a moſt pleaſing conviction of the peaſants' happineſs. In ſome of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, conſiſting, generally, of a field or two of fine paſture-ground, frequently ſkirted with trees, and well ſupplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in moſt parts of Switzerland. The wear of ſilk, lace, and ſeveral other articles of luxury, is totally prohibited in ſome of the cantons; and even the headdreſſes of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are alſo ſtrictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, which is about two dollars, incurs a conſiderable fine. Their diverſions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and, as their time is not waſted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leiſure hours in reading. The youth are generally trained to all the martial exerciſes; ſuch as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and ſhooting, both with the croſs-bow and the muſket.

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of the country, particularly in the republic of Valais, are very much ſubject to *goiters*, or large excreſcences of fleſh which grow from the throat, and often increaſe to a great ſize. But, what is more extraordinary, idiotism alſo remarkably abounds among them. "I ſaw," ſays mr. Coxe, "many inſtances of both kinds, as I paſſed through Sion. Some idiots were baſking in the ſun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the moſt affecting ſpectacle of intellectual imbecility that can poſſibly be conceived. The cauſes which produce a frequency of theſe phenomena, in this country, form a very curious queſtion."

The notion that ſnow-water occaſions theſe excreſcences, is totally void of foundation. For, on that ſuppoſition, why are the natives of thoſe places, that lie moſt contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what deſcends immediately from thoſe immenſe reſervoirs of ice and ſnow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of thoſe countries, in which there is no ſnow, afflicted with it? For, theſe guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the iſland of Sumatra, and at Patna and Purnea in the Eaſt-Indies, where ſnow is unknown. The ſprings which ſupply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, ſo minutely diſſolved, as not in the leaſt to affect the tranſparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this ſubſtance, thus diſſolved, ſhould introduce themſelves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reaſons: becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous depoſition, abounds in all thoſe diſtricts, where goiters are common. There are goitrous perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in various parts of the Valais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Fribourg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in ſeveral places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dreſden, in the vallies of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. "But the ſtrongeſt proof, in favour of this opinion," ſays mr. Coxe, "is derived from the following facts. A ſurgeon, whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf ſtone* from ſeveral goiters; and that from one in particular, he had taken ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long."

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion; ſome of them being proteſtants, others catholics, others mixed. The differences, in that reſpect, formerly created many public commotions, which have ſubſided, and the ſects live together in the moſt perfect harmony. In ſeveral parts of the canton of Glaris, the proteſtants and catholics ſucceſſively perform ſervice in the ſame church; and all the offices of ſtate are amicably adminiſtered by the two parties. Zuinglius introduced proteſtantiſm into Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Calvin and Luther only in a few ſpeculative points.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſs, who border upon France, ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau, whoſe works the preſent age has received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it had been thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe writer only; but the French admire him as a poet. Haller, a native of Berne, deſerves praiſe as a poet, a phyſiologiſt, and a philoſopher. Conrad Geſſner—Bodmer—Hertzel—Meiſter—Lavater, who has publiſhed a volumnious work on phyſiognomy—Solomon Geſſner, the amiable author of the death of Abel, and a number of the moſt beautiful idyls that ever were written—with various other celebrated names, are among thoſe which have reflected luſtre on the literary character of Switzerland.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1549, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics: and adjacent to the library, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein. The other univerſities, which are commonly ſtyled colleges, are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country, preſents the traveler with a natural curioſity; ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buldings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one at two leagues from Fribourg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for twenty-five years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhauſen is a bridge over the Rhine, juſtly admired for the ſingularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already deſtroyed ſeveral ſtone bridges of the ſtrongeſt conſtruction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a ſingle arch, acroſs the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magiſtrates required that it ſhould conſiſt of two arches, and that he ſhould, for that purpoſe, employ the middle pier of the old bridge Accordingly, the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is ſupported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally ſafe if formed ſolely of one arch. The ſides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a hanging bridge. The road, which is almoſt level, is not carried, as usual over the top of the arch; but if the expreſſion may be allowed, is let into the middle of it, and there ſuſpended. A man, of the ſlighteſt weight, feels it almoſt tremble under him; yet waggons, heavily laden, paſs over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles

when ſtruck, but ſtill preſerves its firm and equal tenſion. On conſidering the greatneſs of the plan, and the boldneſs of the conſtruction, it is matter of aſtoniſhment, that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the leaſt tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not verſed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finiſhed in leſs than three years, and coſt nearly forty thouſand dollars.

At the famous paſs of the *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-ſix, and its breadth twenty-five. The ruins of Ceſar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of lake Leman, are diſcernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus, and at Avanche in the canton of Berne. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a Jeſuits' college; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds. At Lucerne, is to be ſeen a topographical repreſentation of the moſt mountainous part of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French ſervice. It is a model in relief, and well deſerves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finiſhed in 1776, compriſed about ſixty ſquare leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The compoſition is principally a maſtic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is ſo hard as to be trod upon without receiving the leaſt damage. The whole is painted with different colours, repreſenting the objects as they exiſt in nature. It is worthy of particular obſervation, that not only the wood of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are diſtinguiſhed, but alſo, that the ſtrata of the ſeveral rocks are marked, each being ſhaped upon the ſpot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous ſtone, or ſuch other natural ſubſtances as compoſe the original mountains. The plan is minutely exact, and not only compriſes all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and foreſts; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and every path is diſtinctly and accurately repreſented. He takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to Sauſſure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the moſt mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a ſublime picture of immenſe Alps piled one upon another. It appears, that continued chains of mountains of equal elevation, are raiſed in progreſſion to the higheſt range, and from thence gradually deſcend in the ſame proportion to Italy. Near Roſiniere is a famous ſpring that riſes in the middle of a natural baſon of twelve ſquare feet. The force that acts upon it muſt be prodigious. After a great ſhower of rain, it carries up a column of water, as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its ſurface. Its temperature never varies. The ſurface is clear of chryſtal, and its depth unfathomable.

Cities.] The moſt conſiderable is Berne, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton form almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy; and can, upon occaſion, fit out one hundred thouſand armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are well provided with arſenals, bridges, and public edifices. Baſil is ſituated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alſace and the empire. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſec, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The ſituation of Baſil is pleaſing. The Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is conſidered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Berne. In the arſenal is ſhown the bow of the famous William Tell.

The city of Geneva is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and under the protection of

the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate and republic. The city is well built and well fortified, and contains twenty-four thouſand inhabitants. Lord Gardenſtone was aſſured that this is the actual number, which we mention, becauſe a late French traveller has advanced them to ſixty thouſand This place is ſituated upon the Rhone, where it flows from the lake of Geneva, and is celebrated for the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is a thorough-fare from Germany, France, and Italy It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; and from its induſtry and proſperity, is an agreeable place. But the fermentation of politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the ſenate, hath divided the inhabitants into parties, and the late ſtraggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all Many of its valuable citizens have left Geneva, and ſought refuge and protection in foreign countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, ſuch as linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, ſilk, printed cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland. The inhabitants begin, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe are very complicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction; but thoſe of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with the dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even thoſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them, the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itſelf to the ſuppoſed errors of its neighbour, and cemented, on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are Swiſs, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or ſtates confederated with the Swiſs, for their common protection. The third are thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms, within itſelf, a little republic; but when a diſpute ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. There is no country, in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For, whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty prevades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates, which, of all others, are uſually the moſt tyrannical, are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the citizen is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to inſure its continuance. Their is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that, ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their ge-

neral confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of the cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Berne are ſaid to amount annually to three hundred thouſand crowns; and thoſe of Zurich, to one hundred and fifty thouſand; and the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expenſes of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and, it has been ſaid, that the Swiſs are poſſeſſed of five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides what they hold in other funds.

The revenues ariſe, firſt, from the profits of the demeſne lands; ſecondly, from the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; thirdly, from cuſtoms and duties on merchandiſe; fourthly, from the revenues ariſing out of the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of thirteen thouſand four hundred men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The economy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on ſtated days for ſhooting t a mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter caſe, the government permits the enliſting of volunteers, though only for ſtates with whom they are in alliance, or have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice. He cannot even be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſs and Griſons are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Ceſar. Their mountainous, uninviting ſituation formed a better ſecurity for their liberties, than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor, Albert the firſt, treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people, and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. One William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently, without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow that he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended for his (Greſler's) heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell, upon this, was condemned to priſon; but, making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the deſpot, and thereby laid the foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that, before this event, the revolt of the Swiſs from the Auſtrian tyranny, had been planned by ſome patriots among them Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their valour ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected an union of ſeveral cantons

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of

their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure one hundred and thirty years after; Baſil and Schaffhauſen, in 1501; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which defeated the united powers of France and Germany, till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

From this period, the Swiſs have been ſo much wiſer than any of the other European powers, that they have preſerved a peace uninterrupted, except by ſome internal diſputes, principally ariſing from religious zeal. Theſe were ſpeedily terminated. Their hiſtory is, therefore, compriſed in few words. It affords no room for ſignalizing the abilities of a writer, by detailing the "ſplendid miſeries of mankind" in battles and ſieges, victories and defeats. While other nations deſcant largely on the bleſſings of peace, liberty, and property, amidſt the curſes of war, taxes, and oppreſſion, theſe happy people quietly enjoy all the manifold advantages, which ſound policy, ſteadily purſued, can confer. The contraſt between their ſituation and that of the different nations by which they are ſurrounded, holds out an inſtructive leſſon to mankind, on the ſubject of war and its pretended glories.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.